rich tract of rice-fields, with generally a strip of cocoa-nut gardens between them and the beach. At intervals of about 10 miles, a river or bay opens, sufficiently large to form a secure harbour for native craft; and the promontories at the river mouths are almost invariably crowned with the ruins of an old fort. At SUVARNDRUG and MALWAN rocky islands stand out from the mainland, still preserving the remains of strong Maráthá fortifications. The larger rivers and creeks have deep water for 20 or 30 miles from the coast; and many of the most important towns are situated at their farthest navigable point, for in so rough a country the rivers form the best highways of trade. The wells of the coast villages supply a brackish but not unwholesome water.

Forests.—In the early days of British occupation, the region round Bánkot creek was clothed with fine teak wood. Curved teak logs, known as Bánkot knees, were largely exported to Bombay; and from Bánkot came most of the stout ribs and frameworks of the old Indian navy. The Maráthás had shipbuilding yards at Málwán and Vijiadrug; and showed a prudent regard to forest preservation. After the transfer of the District from the Maráthá Peshwá in 1818, cultivation greatly increased, and the larger part of the District was laid bare. In 1829 the forests were left to the people for unrestricted use; and in consequence enormous quantities of timber were felled, unchecked, and despatched to the Bombay market. The effect of this treatment has left Ratnágiri denuded of forest to the present day, and in 1879 only 4 per cent. of the area was returned as tree-covered. The village groves along the coast are dense and well supplied with mango, oil-nut (Calophyllum inophydum), and jack trees. The denudation so far has not affected the rainfall. Active measures, of late years, have been adopted to preserve and extend the forest area. The area reserved on 31st March 1881 in Ratnágiri District was 20 square miles, or 12,800 acres; and a further area of 146 square miles is now (1884) in process of reservation. The receipts in 1881 from the sale of teak and firewood in Ratnágiri District was £397.

The chief trees of the District are teak, *ain* (Terminalia tomentosa), *kingal* (Terminalia paniculata), catechu, *shisham* (Dalbergia latifolia), *mana* (Lagerstrœmia lanceolata), *taman* (Lagerstrœmia Reginæ), and bamboos. Casuarina has been found to thrive in Dápoli Sub-division, and it is supposed that the sandhills along the seaboard would make excellent sites for casuarina plantations.

From an economic point of view, the cocoa-nut palm is the most important tree in the District. As a rule, cocoa-nut palms owned by Bráhmans and Maráthás are cultivated for their fruit only; while those held or rented from Bráhmans by Bhandárís are tapped for their juice or toddy. Under Maráthá rule, the owner paid a cess of about

2s. 6d. to Government for each tree tapped. Under the British system, the owner obtains a special licence at a fixed rate (from 2s. to 6s.) for each tree annually; under which the owner may sell the toddy at the foot of the tree, but may not distil it. An average tree yields about from 35 to 64 imperial gallons of juice each year. Number of toddy-yielding palms in the District (approximately), 800,000. A cocoa-nut tree does not bear fruit or yield juice until its eighth or tenth year. It lives for 70 or 80 years; and it bears fruit up to its sixtieth. If tapped, it ceases to be productive much earlier.

Wild Animals.—Game is scarce in Ratnágiri District. Tigers, *sámbhar* deer, and bears are few, and have their haunts in the most inaccessible localities. Leopards are not uncommon; wild hog are plentiful, but owing to the nature of the ground hunting them on horseback is impossible. Deer, antelope, hares, jackals, and foxes abound. Monkeys of the *langur* species are usually to be seen about all towns and villages. The flying-fox (or fruit bat) and musk-rat are common everywhere. The bears are the usual Indian black or sloth species; they inhabit the upper slopes of the Sahyádris, living mostly on their favourite food, the fruit of the wild fig-tree. Wolves are unknown, but packs of wild dogs have been met with.

Snakes are abundant, of both venomous and harmless kinds. The python is stated to measure 10 to 20 feet, but the species is only occasionally met. The Rock snake, *dhaman* (Ptyas mucosus), and the common brown tree snake are general. The cobra (*nág*) (Naja tripudians) is often killed in human habitations. Owing to its nocturnal habits, it is not often seen by daylight. The *fursa* (Echis carinata), identical with the *kapar* of Sind, is by far the most common of the venomous snakes found in the District. The *fursa* is most dangerous owing to its small length (12 to 18 inches).

As regards its game birds, Ratnágiri is an indifferent sporting country; partridges, grouse, and bustard are wanting, while quail is scarce. Duck, snipe, and plover are plentiful. Among birds of prey, the vulture, the falcon, the eagle, and the osprey are found. Owls are common, as also swallows, king-fishers, and parakeets. The Indian oriole or mango bird is rare.

Ratnágiri is well supplied with sea-water fish, and in a less degree with fresh-water fish. Sharks are numerous, and whales are sometimes seen off the seaboard. Sardines swarm on the coast at certain seasons in such abundance as to be used for manure. The fishermen often stay for days at sea, but the usual custom is to start in the afternoon about four, and to return next morning about ten. Women and old men carry fish to market, or hawk them from door to door. The fish are often bartered for grain and firewood; and are largely purchased by wholesale dealers for the purpose of being salted and cured. A con-

siderable quantity of cured fish is exported through the passes of the Sahyádri range into the Deccan. Small fish are cured by being simply dried in the sun.

Geology.—The rocks of Ratnágiri belong to five groups. These, arranged in their true or descending order, are:—

I. Post-tertiary or recent	7. Subaerial formations and soils. 6. Alluvial deposits.
II. Upper tertiary . . .	5. Konkan laterite.
III. Middle or lower tertiary	4. Ratnágiri plant beds.
IV. Upper secondary . .	3. Deccan trap and iron-clay (laterite) series.
V. Azoic	2. Kaládgi quartzites and shales. 1. Gneissic (metamorphic) series with trap and granite intrusions.

Hot springs are found in various parts of the District. The line of springs runs half-way between the Sahyádri Hills and the sea, and seems to stretch both north and south of the District. Three villages, two in Dápoli Sub-division and one in Rájápur, have been named Unhála from their hot springs. There are similar springs near the towns of Khed and Sangameshwar, and at the villages of Arvali and Tural. The water of all these springs seems strongly impregnated with sulphur.

On the top of a hill, two miles from Rájápur, close above the Unhála hot spring, a curious phenomenon is from time to time observed. Certain springs, at irregular intervals, but almost always during the fair season, bubble up, and suddenly, without any warning, overflow the rocky soil, covering a considerable area of ground. This apparent freak of nature can only be accounted for on the hypothesis of an underground syphon forcing the water through a permeable stratum. The natives regard the water as a true stream of the sacred Ganges. According to local tradition, the springs were first observed about 300 years ago, and up to the year 1821 continued to flow regularly every year for six weeks in January–February. From that date to the present time, the phenomenon has been manifested only once in every two or three years. The area covered by the springs is about 3150 square yards.

History.—The Chiplun and Kol caves show that between B.C. 200 and A.D. 50, North Ratnágiri had Buddhist settlements of some importance. The District passed under several Hindu dynasties, of whom the Chalukyas were the most powerful. In 1312, Ratnágiri was overrun by the Muhammadans who established themselves at Dábhol, but the rest of the country was practically unsubdued till 1470, when the Bahmaní kings gained a complete ascendency by the capture of Vishalgarh and Goa. About 1500, the whole of the Konkan south of the Sávitri came under Bijápur rule, when war with the Portuguese wrought grievous loss

to Dábhol and other coast towns. The decline of the Portuguese power was accompanied by the rise of that of the Maráthás, who under Sivají established themselves in Ratnágiri (1658–1680), defeating the Bijápur armies, repelling the Mughals, and overcoming the Sidis and Portuguese. For some years after this the Sidis held possession of part of the District.

The successes of the pirate Kanhojí Angria led to his being appointed admiral of the Maráthá fleet, and obtaining part of Ratnágiri as his principality. In 1745, Tuláji Angria, one of his illegitimate sons, succeeded to the lands between Bánkot and Sáwantwári, disavowed the Peshwá's authority, and seized and plundered all the ships he could master. The English, in conjunction with the Peshwá, in 1755 destroyed the piratical forts at Suvarndrug. The following year, after the destruction of the whole of Angria's fleet, Vijiadrug was taken. For these services, Bánkot with nine villages was ceded to the British. In 1765, Málwán and Redi were reduced. The former was restored to the Rájá of Kolhápur, and Redi was given to the chief of Sáwantwári. The wars between Kolhápur and Sáwantwári, carried on for 23 years with varying success, threw the country into great disorder, as each party in turn became supreme. They finally entered into agreements with the British Government, and ceded Málwán and Vengurla, and arrangements were made for the cession of the Peshwá's dominions in Ratnágiri. But war breaking out in 1817, the country was occupied by a military force, and the forts were speedily reduced.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,019,136 persons, and that of 1881, 997,090; so that a decrease of 22,046, or 2 per cent., occurred within the decade. This decrease is attributed—(1) to the enumeration in this District being placed in the hands of men picked up for the few days required for the Census, who had little interest in work which, however defective, would not be tested in any detail till long after they had been paid; (2) to emigration, due to the increased demand for labour in the mills and docks of Bombay city; and (3) to a movement from the District, indicated by a careful consideration of the returns of the Census, in which families as well as working men were included.

The population of 1881 was resident in 5 towns and 1292 villages with 177,844 houses; unoccupied houses numbered 16,910. Density of population, 254·2 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 49·6; persons per village, 768; persons per house, 5·58. Classified according to sex, there were 473,053 males and 524,037 females; proportion of males, 47·4 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 208,636, and girls 198,463; total children, 407,099, or 40·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards—males 264,417, and females 325,574; total adults, 589,991, or 59·1 per cent.

Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 921,046; Musalmáns, 71,051; Pársis, 16; Christians, 3275; Jains, 1699; Jew, 1; and Buddhists, 2.

The Hindus were sub-divided according to caste into—Bráhmans, 68,178; Rájputs, 86; and other artisan and guild castes—Bhandárís (toddy-drawers), 68,039; Chamárs, 10,624; Darjís (tailors), 2116; Dhobís (washermen), 3601; Dhángars, 4538; Nápits (barbers), 8814; Kunbís (cultivators), 486,784; Kolís (cultivators), 2875; Kumbhárs (potters), 10,906; Lingáyats (traders), 2165; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 1777; Málís (gardeners), 670; Mángs and Mhárs (inferior and degraded castes), 84,194; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 12,542; Sutárs (carpenters), 15,108; Telís (oilmen), 16,638; the rest being made up of minor castes. The Muhammadan population consisted of—Patháns, 1681; Shaikhs, 67,699; Sayyids, 975; and 'others,' 696. According to sect, the Muhammadans were thus returned—Sunnís 70,788, and Shiás 263. The Christian population included—Europeans, 94; Eurasians, 27; and native converts, 3154. Adopting another principle of classification, there were—Roman Catholics, 3117; adherents of the Church of England, 116; and followers of other Christian creeds, 42.

The sailors and fishermen, who are either Muhammadans or Hindus of the Bhandári, Kolí, and Gabit castes, are distinguished by independence of mind and manner, and are also in much better circumstances than the agricultural population. The agricultural castes are Maráthás, Kunbís, and Mhárs, who, except for their great poverty, do not differ materially from those of the Deccan. They are a quiet and inoffensive race, crimes of violence being almost unknown among them. Of the Muhammadans, the most noticeable are those known in Bombay under the general name of Konkani Muhammadans, whose head-quarters are at Bánkot. They hold a few rich villages on the Sávitri river, and say that they are descended from Arab settlers at Dábhol, Chaul, and other towns in the Konkan. Some of them can give particulars of the immigration of their forefathers, and the features of many have a distinctly Arab cast. Many native Christians are to be found at Harnai, Málwán, Vengurla, and other coast towns, with names strangely combined from European and native elements.

From the time that the British Government began to raise Sepoy regiments, the Southern Konkan has always been the great recruiting ground of the Bombay Presidency. In Ratnágiri alone, there were, according to the returns furnished for the first edition of this work, not less than 12,000 pensioners, Mhárs mustering very strongly. The people of this District also flock to Bombay in great numbers, supplying the spinning and weaving mills, and generally its labour market. But the majority, who are occasional workmen, return to their villages for the rainy season. To Ratnágiri's clever, pushing upper classes, to its

frugal, teachable middle classes, and to its sober, sturdy, and orderly lower classes, Bombay city owes many of its ablest officials and lawyers, its earliest and cleverest factory workers, its most useful soldiers and constables, and its cheapest and most trusty supply of unskilled labour. The Census of 1872 disclosed in Bombay city 70,947 persons born in Ratnágiri District, while that of 1881 showed that the number had increased to 126,190, or by nearly 78 per cent. About the year 1864, before Bombay offered so large a market for labour, numbers went from Ratnágiri to the Mauritius, but of late years this emigration has almost entirely ceased.

The Census of 1881 divided the male population into six main groups as regards occupation:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 9147; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 3634; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, and carriers, 9197; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 203,334; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 32,240; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 215,501.

Of the 1297 towns and villages in Ratnágiri District in 1881, 138 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 454 from two to five hundred; 436 from five hundred to one thousand; 205 from one to two thousand; 40 from two to three thousand; 18 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand. The principal towns are—Málwán (15,565); Ratnágiri (12,616); Chiplun (12,065); Vengurla (8947); Rájápur (7448); and Dápoli (2652). The last five named towns are municipalities.

Agriculture.—In 1881, agriculture supported 689,837 persons, or 69·2 per cent. of the total population; the number of 'workers' being 379,979, and of 'dependants' 309,858. In the same year, the total area of revenue-paying land was, approximately, 2439 square miles, out of a District area of 3922 square miles. On this 2439 square miles, the assessment, quit-rent, and local cess amounted to £94,150. The average incidence of State charge, including local cess, per acre of cultivated land, was 1s. 2½d. Average number of cultivable and cultivated land per agricultural 'worker,' 4·1 acres. As Ratnágiri District has not been entirely brought under the operations of the Survey, the exact area of Government cultivable land is not known. Up to the end of 1883–84, six out of the nine Sub-divisions of the District had been surveyed and settled. Of 1,078,821 acres under actual cultivation in 1883–84, of which 36,865 acres were twice cropped, grains occupied over 1,020,583 acres; pulses, 41,773; oil-seeds, 25,222; fibres, 7723; garden produce, 11,827; sugar-cane, 6629; and miscellaneous crops, 3929 acres.

The fertile land is found along the banks of the rivers or salt-water creeks in the neighbourhood of the sea; but the soil is generally poor, consisting in great measure of a stiff ferruginous clay, often mixed with gravel. Neither wheat nor cotton is grown. There are several cocoa-nut plantations in the District, and hemp is grown by the fishermen for net-making. In 1876–77, rice occupied 143,636 acres, and in 1883–84, 166,904 acres. The better kinds of rice land produce also second crops of some description of pulse or vegetable. By far the greater proportion of the food crops consist of inferior grains, as *harik* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), 369,011 acres in 1883–84; *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), 292,464 acres; and *warí* (Panicum miliaceum). These coarse grains are grown on *warkas* soil in the uplands, light and poor. The *warkas* lands may be divided into the more level parts, *mál*, where the plough can be used; and the steeper slopes, *dongri*, admitting only of cultivation by manual labour. The best of the poorer soils bear crops for five or six successive years, and then require a fallow of from three to twelve years.

The land tenures of Ratnágiri differ from that of Bombay generally, in that there is a class of large landholders, called *khots*, in the position of middle-men between Government and the actual cultivators. Nearly one-half of the whole number of villages in the District are held on the *khoti* tenure, under which the *khot* makes himself responsible for the payment of the assessment. Some of the *khoti* grants date back to the time of the Bijápur kings, and were made to Muhammadans, Maráthás, and Hindus alike. In 1829 the *khots* were well off, and many of them were men of capital, who laid out money in bringing new land under tillage. On the other hand, the tenants were deep in the *khot's* debt, and wholly at his mercy, and the first efforts of Government were directed to ascertain the extent of the relative rights of the *khots* and their tenants. In 1851 it was found that the tenants were extremely impoverished, having no motive to improve their lands for the benefit not of themselves, but of the *khots*, and that a labour tax was exacted from them. It was decided to take a survey which would record the rights of occupancy tenants, and would obtain information upon which legislation could be based. The terms of the settlement were embodied in the Survey Act of 1865. The District was settled under its provisions against the strenuous opposition of the *khots*; and as money rates had been substituted for payments in kind, the change was also disliked by the people. In 1874, the discontent was so pronounced that a Commission was appointed to reinvestigate the subject, and to endeavour to effect a compromise. A settlement was carried out between 1877 and 1880, by personal inquiries before the whole of the assembled villagers. All extra cesses were abolished; and the relations between *khot* and tenant were placed upon a satisfactory footing. The

Khot Act I. of 1880 legalized the settlements. Considerable areas on the coast and along the banks of the larger creeks have been granted on reclamation leases.

In 1883–84, the prices current of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. were —rice, forming the food of the better class, 9s. 4¼d. to 5s. 8½d., according to quality; *harik*, food of the poorest class, 1s. 10¾d.; *nagli* or *ragi*, 5s.; *wari*, 4s. 1½d.; *dál* (split-peas), 7s.; salt, 5s. 10¾d.; *ghí*, £3, 3s. The average wages per day of skilled labour were 1s. 2½d.; of unskilled labour, 5¼d. The day's hire for a cart was 1s. 2d. The agricultural stock and implements were—cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 363,847; horses, 295; donkeys, 2; sheep and goats, 38,230; ploughs, 88,743; carts—riding, 175, and carrying, 1277.

Natural Calamities.—Since the beginning of British rule there has been no year of distress so severe and general as to amount to famine. Of only two of the older famines, those of 1790 and 1802–03, does any information remain. Both of these seem to have been felt all over the District. In 1824, a very light rainfall was followed by a complete failure of crops in high grounds, and a partial failure in low rice lands. In 1876, an insufficient rainfall caused a serious loss of crops and local distress, but not actual famine. Public health was bad, and there was considerable distress. A total of £7736 was spent on relief works. An unusual demand for labour sprang up in and near Bombay city; and it was estimated that at least 150,000 (double the usual number) of the poor workers moved to Bombay for part of the fair season, and returned with savings enough to last them till the next harvest.

Trade, etc.—From beyond the line of the Sahyádris, grain, cotton, and sugar are brought down to the sea-coast for exportation, and the carts and bullocks thus engaged generally take back cocoa-nuts, salt, and dried fish. Steamers from Bombay call regularly at the ports in the fair season, bringing piece-goods and stores, and taking back cotton from Vengurla and Ratnágiri. The local shipping traffic has suffered through the competition of steamers; but a large traffic is still carried on by this means with the Malabar coast, Cutch, Káthiáwár, and Karáchí. In 1883–84, the number of vessels which entered and cleared the ports of the District was 33,328, of 959,737 tonnage; of these, 444 were steamers, of 579,194 tonnage.

The Ratnágiri seaboard contains 29 ports and harbours. They are of two classes—coast ports on sheltered bays and river mouths; and inland ports up tidal creeks, generally at the point where navigation ceases. Of the whole, nine, Bánkot, Harnai, Chiplun, Sangameshwar, Ratnágiri, Rájápur, Khárepátan, Málwán, and Vengurla, are places of some trade and consequence; the rest are insignificant. The ports are grouped for customs purposes into six divisions—Anjanwel, Málwán, Ratnágiri, Suvarndrug, Vengurla, and Vijiadrug. The total value of

the sea-borne trade of the ports in the District amounted in 1876 to £2,410,611, of which £1,004,547 represented the exports, and £1,406,064 the imports; and in 1883–84 to £2,601,301—exports £1,467,390, and imports £1,133,911. The manufactures of the District are unimportant; but the School of Industry at Ratnágiri town possesses steam sawmills, and undertakes wood and iron work of all descriptions. In 1852, Captain (now Sir George) Wingate wrote: 'There are not even bullock-paths from many villages to the nearest market towns, and the whole of the produce sent there for sale is taken upon men's heads. Carts are unknown. Of late years, however, many improvements have been made. Three good cart-roads now cross the Sahyádri Hills, and also a trunk road, with branches from one end of the District to the other. During the famine of 1876–77, nearly 90,000 tons of grain passed inland from the coast. There are at present 763 miles of road in the District.

Administration.—In 1819, the South Konkan was formed into a separate District, with Bánkot as its head-quarters, which in the next year were removed to Ratnágiri, a more central and convenient place. In 1830, the three *táluks* north of Bánkot were transferred to the North Konkan, and Ratnágiri reduced to the rank of a Sub-collectorate. But in 1832 it was again made a District. The total revenue in 1883–84 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £135,088; the incidence of taxation per head being 2s. 7½d. The land-tax forms the principal source of income, yielding £91,429. The local funds, created since 1863, yielded a total of £5306. There are five municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 43,728 persons. The municipalities are Ratnágiri, Chiplun, Vengurla, Rájápur, and Dápoli. The native members of the committees numbered in all 72, and the European members 15. The receipts of the municipalities were returned at £8431, and the incidence of taxation varied from 5½d. (Dápoli) to 3s. 5½d. (Vengurla) per head of population. The form of taxation known as octroi, levied upon commodities brought within municipal limits, furnished an income of £2275. The District is administered by a Collector and 6 Assistants. It is provided with a District Judge's court, and 8 civil courts. The total strength of the regular police in 1883–84 consisted of 737 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 1354 of the population and to every 5 square miles of the area. The total cost was £10,514, equal to £2, 13s. 7¼d. per square mile and 2½d. per head of population. The District contains one jail; daily average number of prisoners in 1880, 312, of whom 16 were women.

Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855–56 there were only 20 schools, attended by 2403 pupils. In 1876–77 there were 147 schools, with 8776 pupils. In 1883–84 the number of schools was 155, and the number of scholars 12,014, the average being 1

school to every 8 villages. The Census of 1881 returned 14,104 boys and 215 girls as under instruction, besides 29,889 males and 224 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. Four newspapers were published in 1876–77, and six in 1883–84.

Climate.—The climate of the District, though moist and relaxing, is on the whole healthy. The rainfall is abundant and comparatively regular. The annual rainfall during the five years ending 1876 averaged 105 inches; and for about twenty years ending 1881, 107·3 inches. Maximum heat at Ratnágiri in 1883, 99·9° F.; minimum, 58·6° F. The prevailing diseases are intermittent fevers and leprosy. There are 4 dispensaries in the District, and a hospital for lepers; in-door patients (1883), 799; out-door, 21,135. Registered birth-rate, 20 per thousand; registered death-rate, 16·7 per thousand. The deaths from cholera in 1883 numbered 91; from small-pox, 904; from fevers, 8235. Total number of persons vaccinated, 25,349.

Ratnágiri.—Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Situated in the centre of the District, bounded on the west by the sea. Area, 432 square miles. Population (1881) 126,227, namely, 59,311 males and 66,916 females, occupying 22,504 houses, in 1 town and 149 villages. Hindus numbered 111,056; Muhammadans, 14,939; and 'others,' 232. The coast-line is bold, and indented with numerous creeks. Climate moist and relaxing. Alluvial deposits on the banks and at the estuaries of the creeks. The plateaux and hills consist entirely of laterite. In 1877–78, 150,538 acres were under tillage. Grain crops occupied 146,285 acres; pulses, 1500 acres; fibres, 125 acres; oil-seeds, 1050 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1578 acres. In 1883–84 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 68 men. Land revenue, £10,578.

Ratnágiri.—Chief town of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 16° 59′ 37″ N., and long. 73° 19′ 50″ E., 136 miles south by east of Bombay. Population (1872) 10,614; (1881) 12,616, namely, 6418 males and 6198 females. Hindus number 9343; Muhammadans, 3076; Christians, 192; and Jains, 5. The town is open, and faces the sea; the fort stands on a rock between two small bays, but these afford neither shelter nor good anchorage, as they are completely exposed and have a rocky bottom. With any breeze from the west, a heavy surf breaks on the bar, and boats can only enter at high tide. The water-supply is entirely derived from wells, which are for the most part never-failing. One object of interest connected with Ratnágiri is the *tárli* or sardine fishery, which usually takes place in the months of January and February, when fleets of canoes may be seen engaged in this occupation. A single net-caster will fill his canoe in the course of a morning. The fishing ground is just outside the breakers. The industry can be carried on only when the water is clear enough to

admit of the fish being readily seen. The salt-water creek to the south of the fort is only practicable for country craft of under 20 tons burden.

The chief ports in the Ratnágiri customs division are Jaigarh, Ratnágiri, and Purangarh. The average annual value of the trade of the Ratnágiri customs division for the five years ending 1883–84 is returned at £128,763, viz. imports £91,029, and exports £37,734. In 1883–84 the value was £141,824—imports £97,358, and exports £44,466. The chief imports are salt, timber, catechu, and grain; the exports—fuel, fish, and bamboos.

Besides being the head-quarters of the District, Ratnágiri has a sub-judge's court, civil and leper hospitals, and four schools. In 1878 it was constituted a municipality. The income is chiefly derived from a house-tax. The streets and the landing-place are lighted; and a travellers' or staging bungalow is kept up. From a perennial stream two and a half miles east of the town, water has been conducted, and pipes have been laid through all the chief quarters. In 1883–84 the municipal committee was composed of 6 European and 22 native members. The income was £649; incidence of municipal taxation, 10½d. per head. The lighthouse was erected in 1867. The elevation of the lantern above high water is 250 feet, and the height of the building, from base to vane, 22 feet. It exhibits a single red, fixed dioptric light, of order 6, which is visible at 8 to 10 miles' distance.

Rato Dero.—*Táluk* of Lárkhána Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 228 square miles. Population (1872) 35,896; (1881) 41,588, namely, 22,480 males and 19,108 females, occupying 6023 houses, in 1 town and 86 villages. Hindus number 3379; Muhammadans, 34,517; Sikhs, 3604; and aboriginal tribes, 88. Gross revenue (1882–83), £14,388. Area assessed to land revenue, 43,329 acres; area of actual cultivation, 41,328 acres. The Sub-division contained—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 26 men.

Rato Dero.—Chief town of Rato Dero *táluk*, in Lárkhána Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; 18 miles north-east by north from Lárkhána. Head-quarters of a *múkhtiyárkár*, and *tappadár*, and contains the usual public buildings. Population (1881) 3170. Local trade in grain. Rato Dero was formerly the encampment of a chief of the Jalbáni tribe called Rato. Municipal revenue in 1883–84, £370; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1¼d. per head of population.

Ratsar (or *Ratsar Kalán*).—Village in Ballia *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 54′ 02″ N., and long. 84° 05′ 07″ E., on the Garwár-Sikandarpur road. Population (1881) 4911. The principal village of the Ratsar *táluk* or estate, which was per-

manently settled with Karcholiá Rájputs, and is still in the possession of the descendants of the original proprietors. The village contains two sugar factories, and a primary school. A large *bázár* is held twice a week.

Rattihalli.—Village in the Kod Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 10 miles south-east of Kod. Population (1881) 2332. Till 1864, Rattihalli was the head-quarters of the Sub-division. In 1764, in the war between Haidar Alí and the Maráthás, Rattihalli was the scene of a signal rout of Haidar's army. A temple in Jakhanácharya style, built of sculptured slabs, and with three domes supported on 36 pillars. Seven inscriptions varying in date from 1174 to 1550 A.D. Weekly market on Friday. Ruined fort.

Rau Karna.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 7 miles from Unao town, on the road to Safipur. Population (1881) 2200, of whom 46 are Muhammadans. Small market, twice a week.

Rauk-thwa (or more correctly *Yauk-thwa*).—Stream which rises in the Paung-laung range in Taung-gú District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* YAUK-THWA.

Ráver.—Town in the Savda Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 15′ N., long. 76° 4′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 7482, namely, Hindus, 5698; Muhammadans, 1510; Jains, 189; and 'others,' 85. A good road, two miles long and carefully bridged, connects the town with Ráver station on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 297 miles north-east of Bombay. Ráver has a local reputation for its manufactures of gold thread and articles of native apparel. In the main street, leading from the market-place to the fort, the houses are nearly all three-storied, and tiled with richly-carved wooden fronts. Ráver was ceded by the Nizám to the Peshwá in 1763, and by the latter bestowed on Holkar's family. Post-office. Small rest-house at the railway station.

Ráver.—Village in Nimár District, Central Provinces; on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, 40 miles from Khandwá. Contains the cenotaph of the Peshwá Bájí Ráo, who died at Ráver in 1740, when about to invade Northern India for the second time. The monument is built of variegated sandstone, enclosed in a spacious *dharmsála* of strong masonry. A handsome *ghát*, opposite the platform in the centre of the river, where the funeral rites were performed, has been much injured by floods. Ráver lies a short distance from the Barwái or Dhangáon travellers' bungalow, and is also accessible from Barwái by boat.

Rávi.—River in the Punjab (Panjáb); one of the five great streams from which the Province derives its name. The *Hydraotes* of Arrian, and the *Iravati* of Sanskrit authors. It rises in the Kúlu Sub-division of Kángra District, and immediately passes into Chamba State,

after which it strikes upon British territory again on the borders of Gurdáspur District, opposite Basáoli in Jamu, and forms the boundary for 25 miles, with a general south-westerly course. It leaves the hills on the southern bank at Sháhpur, but still flows between high cliffs, while on the Jamu side the mountains descend to its very brink. At Madhupur, the head-works of the BARI DOAB CANAL draw off a large portion of its waters. Thenceforward the banks sink in height, and the river assumes the usual character of the Punjab streams, flowing in the centre of an alluvial valley, with outer banks at some distance from the present bed. In 1810 it carried away the Tali Sáhib shrine near Dera Nának, a place of great sanctity with the Sikhs, and still threatens the town. The Rávi next passes between Siálkot and Amritsar Districts, preserving the general south-westerly direction which it has taken since leaving the mountains. The depth is here not more than a foot in March and April, swelling in June and September to 18 or 20 feet. Entering the District of Lahore, it runs within 1 mile of Lahore city, and throws out several branches, which soon, however, rejoin the parent stream. A bridge of boats conveys across the Lahore and Pesháwar road. After entering Montgomery District it receives its chief tributary, the Degh, on its north-western bank, and then passes into Múltán (Mooltan) District. Finally, it falls into the Chenáb (Chináb) in lat. 30° 31′ N., long. 71° 51′ 20″ E., after a total length of about 450 miles.

Throughout its course in the plains, the Rávi flows everywhere in a comparatively narrow valley, often only a couple of miles in width, with generally a very tortuous channel. In one part, however, the river runs a perfectly straight course for 12 miles from Kuchlumba to Sarái Sidhu in Múltán District, between high wooded banks, forming a beautiful reach. Few islands are formed, but the bed shifts occasionally from place to place. The floods of the Rávi only fertilize a fringe of 1 or 2 miles on either side; and it is little employed for direct irrigation, although it supplies water both to the Bári Doáb and Hásli Canals. Navigation is difficult, but grain is shipped from Lahore in considerable quantities. *Deodár* timber, floated down in rafts from the Chamba forests, only finds its way to Lahore in seasons of heavy flood. In former times the Rávi did not join the Chenáb until a point below Múltán city, and its ancient bed may still be traced. Even now, at times of high flood, the water finds its way to Múltán by the old channel.

Ráwal Pindi.—Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, lying between 31° 32′ and 34° N. lat., and between 71° 37′ and 74° 31′ E. long. The Division, which includes an area of 15,435 square miles, comprises the four

Districts of RAWAL PINDI, JEHLAM (Jhelum), GUJRAT, and SHAHPUR, all of which see separately. Bounded on the north by Hazára and Pesháwar Districts; on the east by the Native State of Kashmír; on the south by Jhang, Gujránwála, and Siálkot Districts; and on the west by Kohát, Bannu, and Dera Ismáil Khán Districts.

The population of Ráwal Pindi Division was returned by the Census of 1868 at 2,197,041. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a population of 2,520,508, showing an increase of 323,467 in thirteen years. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of the Division, 15,435 square miles, with 24 towns and 4570 villages; number of houses, 329,573; number of families, 541,822. Total population, 2,520,508, namely, males 1,346,573, and females 1,173,935; proportion of males, 53·4 per cent. Average density of population, 163 persons per square mile, varying from 349 per square mile in Gujrát to 90 per square mile in Sháhpur. Average number of persons per town or village, 549; inmates per house, 7·65. Classified according to sex and age, the Census shows—under 15 years of age, males 544,743, and females 475,962; total children, 1,020,705, or 40·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 801,830, and females 697,973; total adults, 1,499,803, or 59·5 per cent.

Religion.—As regards religious distinctions, Muhammadans form the great majority of the population, numbering 2,193,558, or 87 per cent. Hindus are returned at 278,587, or 11·0 per cent.; Sikhs, 42,555, or 1·6 per cent.; Christians, 4522; Jains, 1100; and Pársís and 'others,' 186. Among the ethnical divisions, the Játs come first, numbering 352,914. Of these, only 7769, or 2·2 per cent., still retain the ancestral creed of their Hindu or Sikh forefathers; the remainder are the descendants of converts who embraced Islám during the earlier Muhammadan invasions. Rájputs number 303,131, of whom all except 2563 are returned as Muhammadans by religion. The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consists of—Sayyids, 60,138; Shaikhs, 49,341; Patháns, 46,192; Mughals, 44,016; Kashmíris, 66,937; and Balúchis, 13,497. The chief Hindu castes who still retain their ancient faith, although representatives of Islám are found even among them, include—Bráhmans, 42,663; Khattris, 109,885; and Arorás, 83,507. The other principal castes and tribes, almost all Muhammadans by religion, with a sprinkling of Hindus and Sikhs, include—Awáns, 279,204; Gújars, 138,655; Chuhras, 113,601; Juláhas, 111,963; Mochís, 90,004; Tarkháns, 69,372; Moniars, 53,115; Kumbhárs, 52,869; Arains, 44,432; Náis, 43,659; Lohárs, 40,214; Machhís, 32,347; Telís, 31,360; Mirásís, 30,077; Charhoás, 29,053; Dhobís, 25,735; Sonárs, 21,372 (including 18,143 Hindus); Ghakkars, 20,776; Jhinwárs, 17,363;

Khokhars, 12,841; Darzís, 10,244; and Khojás, 7658. The Christian population consists of Europeans, 4128; Eurasians, 214; and natives of India, 180.

Town and Rural Population.—Ráwal Pindi Division contains six towns with a population exceeding ten thousand inhabitants, namely, RAWAL PINDI, 52,975; JEHLAM, 21,107; GUJRAT, 18,743; PIND DADAN KHAN, 16,724; BHERA, 15,165; and JALALPUR, 12,839. Besides the foregoing, there are 18 minor towns, with an aggregate of 102,910 inhabitants, bringing up the total urban population to 240,463, or 9·6 per cent. of the population of the Division. There are 20 municipalities, with an aggregate population of 213,403; total municipal income (1883–84), £28,414, or an average of 2s. 8d. per head. Of the 4594 towns and villages in the Division, 1496 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1604 between two and five hundred; 922 from five hundred to a thousand; 423 from one to two thousand; 98 from two to three thousand; 33 from three to five thousand; 12 from five to ten thousand; and 6 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the male population over 15 years of age are thus returned:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 39,293; (2) domestic class, 25,423; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, and carriers, 28,437; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 420,369; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including gardeners, 184,705; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, 67,195; and (7) unspecified class, 36,408.

Agriculture.—According to the Punjab Administration Report for 1883–84, out of a total assessed area of 15,308 square miles, or 9,796,992 acres, 3,518,493 acres were under cultivation in that year; 1,246,287 acres were returned as grazing land; 2,011,847 acres were cultivable, but not under tillage; and 3,020,366 acres were unculti-vable waste. Of the cultivated area, 660,086 acres were artificially irrigated, namely, 62,407 acres from Government works, and 597,679 acres by private individuals from wells, etc. The great crop of the Division is wheat, which is grown on 1,362,339 acres; followed by *bájra*, 792,889 acres; *joár*, 175,823 acres; barley, 136,617 acres; gram, 95,347 acres; Indian corn, 79,948 acres; and pulses, 190,331 acres. Rice is grown on only 8309 acres. Cotton occupies 82,045 acres; sugar-cane, 9737 acres; and tobacco, 6474 acres.

Administration.—The administrative staff of the Ráwal Pindi Division consists of a Commissioner of Division, who is directly respon-sible to the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, with an additional Judicial Commissioner; 4 Deputy Commissioners, each with a Judi-cial Assistant; a Cantonment Magistrate, and ordinarily 10 Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners, 17 *tahsíldárs*, 12 *munsifs*, and

9 honorary magistrates, besides a staff of subordinate village officials, and the usual police, medical, and public works officials. The gross revenue of the Division in 1883-84 amounted to £329,160, of which £238,070 was derived from the land. Protection to person and property is afforded by 53 civil and revenue courts, and 41 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 2370 officers and men, stationed at 62 police circles, besides a village watch or rural police of 2682 *chaukídárs.* There are altogether 8 jails and Sub-divisional lock-ups, with an average daily prison population in 1883 of 1505, of whom 1395 were labouring convicts. Means of communication are afforded by 301 miles of the Punjab Northern State Railway, with its branches to Kushalgarh, and to the Salt Mines; by 224 miles of metalled and 3752 miles of unmetalled roads; and by 407 miles of navigable rivers.

There are 247 Government and aided schools in the Division, attended by 20,952 pupils in 1883-84. This is exclusive of uninspected indigenous village schools; and the Census of 1881 returned 22,853 boys and 875 girls as under instruction, besides 59,734 males and 1160 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical relief is furnished by 36 hospitals and dispensaries, attended in 1883-84 by 4540 in-door and 284,189 out-door patients. Total number of deaths registered in the Division in 1883-84, 64,701, showing a death-rate of 25·6 per thousand.

Ráwal Pindi. — District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 33° 3′ and 34° 4′ N. lat., and between 71° 46′ and 73° 41′ E. long.; with an area of 4861 square miles, and a population in 1881 of 820,512 souls. It forms the most northern of the four Districts of the Ráwal Pindi Division, and occupies the tableland between the Salt Range, the outer Himálayas, and the Indus. Bounded on the north by Hazára District; on the east by the river Jehlam (Jhelum); on the south by Jehlam (Jhelum) District; and on the west by the river Indus, which separates it from Pesháwar and Kohát Districts. Ráwal Pindi stands sixth in order of area, and seventh in order of population, among the 32 Districts of the Punjab, comprising 4·56 per cent. of the total area, and 4·36 per cent. of the total population of the Province. It is divided into seven *tahsíls*, of which Pindi Gheb lies in the south-west; Attock in the north-west; Fatehjang in the south centre; Gújar Khán in the south-east; and Ráwal Pindi in the north-east; with Kahúta *tahsíl* in the extreme east, and the small *tahsíl* of Marri (Murree) in the extreme north-eastern corner. The administrative head-quarters of the District and Division are at the town of RAWAL PINDI.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Ráwal Pindi forms a portion of the rugged and broken Himálayan spur which projects irregularly into the northern angle of the Sind Ságar Doáb. Its surface is cut up in

every direction by mountain ranges entering it from either side, while the intermediate valleys are intersected by minor heights, whose confused and irregular masses crop out in picturesque diversity, to the despair of the systematic geographer. So far as these fantastic bosses can be reduced to any order, they naturally divide themselves into two characteristic regions, on the east and west of an imaginary central line. The eastern range, running along the side of the Jehlam (Jhelum) river, is known by the name of the Murree (Marri) Hills, from the sanitarium perched upon its northern extremity. It is composed of sandstone slopes, the direct outliers of the Himálayas, and is clothed with magnificent forest trees and a rich undergrowth of brushwood. Near the summer station of Murree (Marri), the spur attains a height of 8000 feet, and stretching thence into the District of Hazára, loses itself at last in the snowy ranges of Kashmír. The view from the sanitarium embraces the white cloud-like summits of the Kashmír Mountains, with a rich and varied foreground of mingled forest and cultivation clothing the hill-sides. Southward, the hills decrease in height, growing more diversified and angular, but gaining in picturesqueness what they lose in sublimity. Cottages appear on every jutting ledge, half hidden amid the foliage, overtopped by a graceful mosque, and threatened from above by some frowning fortress of Sikh or Ghakkar chieftain. At length, on the southern frontier, the hills slowly subside into a comparatively level country, only divided from the valley of the Jehlam by a narrow barrier of sandstone.

The western half of the District presents a very different appearance. Its mountains belong to the trans-Indus system, which is here severed by the deeply cut channel of the great river, so as to give off a series of isolated ridges, cutting up the opposite bank into wild mazes or limestone hills. The soil here is dry and barren; the vegetation is scanty and stunted; the valleys are mere water-worn ravines or beds of flooded torrents; and the population is crowded into large villages, which lie scattered at great distances among the inhospitable rocks. The chief range of these western mountains is known as the Chitta Pahár, from the whiteness of its exposed nummulitic beds. To the north lies the fertile valley of Chach, one of the rare oases which relieve the wildness of this savage waste. A minor range ends in the black cliffs of Attock, an important ferry and fortress on the Indus. Smaller lines of hills cover the remainder of the area, in too great numbers for special description.

Of the rivers of Ráwal Pindi, the INDUS claims first rank. It bounds the District along its whole western edge. After entering in a narrow channel from Hazára, it suddenly expands to a breadth of more than a mile, dividing the fertile plains of Chach and Yusafzai, and embracing many wooded islets in its placid stream. At Attock it

contracts once more, as it rushes under the dark rocks of Jalália and Kamália; while below, it again becomes a broad lake at Bágh Niláb, and yet again narrows to pass through the beetling gorge of the Mokhad Hills. At Mokhad it becomes navigable for steamers, and immediately passes beyond the borders of Ráwal Pindi. In 1884, an iron-girder railway bridge across the Indus, with a sub-way for ordinary traffic, was completed at a point about three miles south of Attock fort. The Indus does not at present afford any facilities for irrigation, but were a canal cut through the Chach plain, it is believed that a considerable area might be thus watered. The average depth of the Indus at Attock is 17 feet in the winter and 50 feet in the summer. Its average fall between Attock and Kálábágh (in Bannu) is 20 inches per mile.

The JEHLAM (Jhelum) on the eastern frontier (the *Hydaspes* of Greek and Roman writers) is equally picturesque, though less important for navigation. It rises in Kashmír, and passing through the Bara Múla Pass, skirts Ráwal Pindi District from its northernmost point to its southern boundary, a distance of about 70 miles. It flows, throughout, between lofty mountains and precipitous rocks, with a clear and swift stream, but interrupted by numerous rapids, which render it incapable of navigation above Dangalli. Timber, however, is floated down in large quantities from Kashmír. Below Dangalli, 40 miles east of Ráwal Pindi town, the river becomes navigable. A good mule road has been recently made along the right bank of the Jehlam at an average elevation of 100 feet above the river, bringing the town of Jehlam into direct communication with the new suspension bridge on the Murree and Kashmír road at Koháła. The Jehlam forms no islands in Ráwal Pindi District, nor is it used for irrigation, its steep and rocky sides forming an insurmountable obstacle even to the smallest cuts.

The next river in importance is the SOHAN, which receives the drainage of the central portion of the District. Taking its rise within a few miles of Murree, it flows down deep valleys for the first 10 miles of its course, till it reaches the plains near the old ruined fortress of the Ghakkars at Pharwála, whence it takes a south-westerly course throughout the entire length of the District. It is crossed by a fine bridge 3 miles to the east of Ráwal Pindi town, and finally joins the Indus 10 miles below Mokhad. The bed of the river is for the most part sandy, with an occasional mixture of stiff clay, except in the upper portion, where it is composed of large boulders and rocks. Quicksands are numerous, and often dangerous, in the lower parts. No ferries are maintained on the Sohán, and the river is fordable at all seasons, except after heavy floods. Its waters are diverted to a small extent for mills, and to irrigate low-lying lands; but its violent

floods are an insuperable obstacle to the erection of any works of a permanent character.

The only other river requiring notice is the HAROH, which flows in the same direction as the Soháu, but more to the westward. Debouching from the Hazára hills near Khánpur, it takes a westerly course towards the Gandgarh hills, passing 9 miles north of Hasan Abdál, and eventually falls into the Indus, 12 miles below Attock. Numerous small cuts afford irrigation to a large tract of country in the neighbourhood of Usmán Khatar and Hasan Abdál. The stream also affords motive power to several flour mills.

Forests.—The forests of Ráwal Pindi consist of two divisions, namely, the hill forests of Murree and Kahúta *tahsíl*, and the *rakhs* or Government reserves which were found to be without owners at the time of settlement, and were accordingly marked out as Government wastes. These *rakhs* are situated in the plains portion of the District, in *tahsíls* Ráwal Pindi, Fatehjang, Attock, and Pindi Gheb.

The hill forests are characterized by pine and oak as the chief products. In the extreme north of Murree *tahsíl*, Pinus excelsa, Quercus dilatata and incana, together with Populus alba and ciliata, Cedrela Toona, Ulmus Wallichiana, Celtis australis, Acer villosum and pictum, Æsculus indica, are found in the higher forests; while south of Murree grow Pinus longifolia and Quercus incana with some Annulata, Pyrus foliolosa, Cornus macrophylla, Acacia Catechu; and descending lower, Acaçia modesta, Pistacia integerrima, Zizyphus Jujuba, Eugenia Jambolana, Dalbergia Sissoo, Olea cuspidata, etc. The lower Kahúta forests present the curious mixture of Pinus longifolia and Dodonœa viscosa, with hardly any other tree or bush. The pine forests (longifolia) are very liable to destructive fires, often lit by villagers with the intent of burning off the thick layers of pine needles which destroy the grass. The chief brushwood plants are Indigofera heterantha, Berberis aristata, Carissa diffusa. The pine (*chíl*) is largely used for building, while the oak, acacia, olive, and other hard woods are utilised in large quantities for fuel. Hitherto the Government and villagers have had a kind ot partnership, the former claiming all trees of spontaneous growth, while the latter have liberty to graze their cattle everywhere they please, and to cut wood for domestic purposes without restriction. Trees for building are granted free on application to *tahsíldárs*. The sale only is prohibited.

The reserves on the plains (*rakhs*), nine in number, with a total area of 66,971 acres, consist, with one exception, of hills standing out from the surrounding country. The largest of these, Margalla, with an area of 24,362 acres, is the south side of the range where the Hazára Hills come abruptly to an end. Its highest point is 5200 feet; from 3500 feet upwards pine occurs, but below this the vegetation is the same as

elsewhere in the plains' reserves, namely, Acacia modesta, Acacia Catechu, and Olea ferruginea. Peculiar to Margalla are Mallotus phillipinensis, which forms occasionally dense thickets; also Buxus sempervirens or the boxwood tree. Of brushwood, there are Dodonœa, Justicia adhatoda, Prinsepia utilis, Celastrus spinosus, Carissa diffusa, etc. Dodonœa burns well when green, and is a good roofing material, as white ants do not eat it.

Of a total area of 649 square miles in Ráwal Pindi District under the Forest Department in 1882, 104 square miles were 'reserved' forest (*rakhs*), and 171 square miles 'protected' hill forest, while 374 square miles were unreserved. A few wild products are obtained in the forests, but in such small quantities as hardly to deserve the name of market articles: flower buds of the *kachnár*, used as food and for pickles; wild pomegranate seeds for medicinal purposes; fir oil (from the trees); gum, honey, and wax; and various small fruits, such as blackberries, raspberries, sloes, cranberries, and wild pears. The only people who live by pasturing cattle in the forests are Gújars, who, to the number of about 200, bring down large flocks of goats and sheep from Kágán and the distant mountains to graze during the winter months in the more genial climate of Murree and the adjacent hills. With the approach of summer they retire to the higher ranges.

Minerals.—Ráwal Pindi is not rich in minerals. A beautiful veined marble (*abri*) is found in Kawagarh hill, and can be worked into cups; but the cost is high, owing to the hardness of the stone and the scarcity of skilled labour. A sulphur mine, formerly worked by the Sikhs, exists at Zohra village, north-east of Ráwal Pindi town. Petroleum is found in small quantities at Ratta Hotar, near the same locality, 13 miles from Ráwal Pindi town, and also at Sadkal on the road from Fatehjang to Campbellpur. In 1882, two wells and seven borings yielded 5000 gallons of oil. Gypsum is found in considerable quantities along the southern part of the hills, but is not utilized. Lignite is occasionally met with in small quantities in the hills, and an inferior description of anthracite is found in small quantities in Pindi Gheb *tahsíl*, near the banks of the Indus. Quite recently, true coal has been discovered in several villages, and has been worked by the Punjab Northern State Railway. It has only been found in or near the surface, in wedge-shaped pockets which gradually taper out and disappear in shale. Gold-washing is carried on in the sands of the Indus and several of its tributaries. The gold-washers earn but a precarious livelihood, estimated to average about the wages of a common day-labourer.

Wild Animals.—Tigers, which were numerous thirty years ago, are now almost extinct. Leopards are, however, still common in the hills, and wolves, hyænas, jackals, and foxes are found all over the District.

Barking deer, ravine deer, and *uriál* are found in the more secluded and inaccessible tracts. Small game are scanty. Hares are found in all the low hills and in most ravines and sparsely cultivated tracts; four kinds of partridges are met with, but not plentifully. There are a few pheasants and jungle fowl near Murree. Among migratory birds are *obára*, sand-grouse, duck, snipe, geese, coulon, and quail. Good *mahasir* fish are to be caught in the Indus, and in the Sohán, Haro, and Kurang streams. Fishing as a sole means of livelihood is nowhere practised except on the Indus. The poisonous varieties of serpents are scarce, and deaths from snake-bite are rare. Hawking is a favourite pastime with natives. Several leading chiefs and native gentlemen keep a large number of hawks, and an establishment of trained falconers.

History.—Few Districts in India can claim so long a period of authentic history as Ráwal Pindi; for although it does not share in the mythical glories of the *Mahábhárata*, it contains many of the towns connected with the great events of Alexander's Punjab campaign, and is accordingly enshrined in the pages of Arrian and Pliny. Its earliest inhabitants appear to have been the Takkas, a Turanian race who held the greater part of the Sind Ságar Doáb, and gave their name to the town of Takshásila (the *Taxila* of Greek geographers). Alexander found it 'a rich and populous city, the largest between the Indus and Hydaspes;' and its site has been identified in the ruins of DERI SHAHAN or SHAH DERI, which lie to the north of the Margala Pass in this District. Fifty years after Alexander's invasion, the people of Taxila were subject to the King of Magadha; and a rebellion on their part was put down by Prince Asoka, afterwards the famous Buddhist Emperor of Upper India. The notes of the two great Buddhist pilgrims from China during the middle ages show us that Taxila remained a place of peculiar sanctity until the period of Muhammadan conquest. Many relics of ancient temples are still to be found in the District, and legend connects their sites in several cases with important events in the life of Buddha.

When the Musalmán invasions first draw the veil which hangs over Indian history from the era of Alexander down to the 11th century, we find the country around Taxila in possession of the Ghakkars, a tribe who are described by Ferishta as mere savages, addicted to the grossest forms of polyandry and infanticide. In 1008, Mahmúd of Ghazní was met on the plains of Chach by the forces of the Rájput confederacy under Prithwi Rájá, and his victory was almost averted through the impetuous attack of 30,000 Ghakkars. But the battle ended in the total defeat of the Rájputs, and all Upper India lay helpless at the feet of the Musalmán conqueror. Mahmúd, however, appears to have left the Ghakkars in quiet possession of their mountain home,

and to have pressed on to the occupation of more fertile regions. The Ghakkars are next heard of in 1205, when the reverses of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori in Kharizm encouraged them to rise in revolt against their Muhammadan suzerain, and to ravage the Punjab up to the very gates of Lahore. But the Sultán returned unexpectedly to India, defeated the rebellious Ghakkars with great slaughter, and compelled them to embrace the faith of Islám. Shaháb-ud-dín did not live to profit by their conversion; for on his way home to his western dominions he was surprised on the farther bank of the Indus by a Ghakkar detachment, who swam the river and murdered him at night in his tent. Under subsequent rulers, the country maintained its character for turbulence, being always ready for revolt whenever the misfortunes of the reigning prince afforded a favourable opportunity.

Bábar attacked the Ghakkar capital of Pharwála, and he gives an interesting account of its capture in his autobiography. It was strongly situated in the hills, and was defended with great bravery by its chief Háti Khán, who escaped from one gate as the Mughal army marched in at the other. Háti Khán died by poison in 1525; and his cousin and murderer, Sultán Sárang, made submission to Bábar, who conferred upon him in return the Putwár country. Thenceforth the Ghakkar chieftains became firm allies of the Mughal dynasty, whom they were able to aid efficiently in their struggle with the house of Sher Sháh. During the flourishing period of the Delhi Empire, the family of Sárang retained their territorial possessions and high social status in the Punjab; but with the decay of the central power they fell a prey, like so many of their neighbours, to the aggressive rule of the Sikh confederacy.

In 1765, during the total paralysis of the Mughal government, Sardár Gújar Singh Bhangi, a powerful Sikh chieftain, marched from Lahore against the last independent Ghakkar prince, Mukarrab Khán, whom he defeated outside the walls of Gujrát. Mukarrab retired beyond the Jehlam, where he was soon treacherously murdered by his own tribesmen; but the traitors forthwith quarrelled over their spoil, and fell one by one before Sardár Gújar Singh. The Sikhs ruled Ráwal Pindi with their usual rapacity, exacting as revenue the last coin that could be wrung from the proprietors, who were often glad to admit their tenants as joint-sharers, in order to lighten the incidence of the revenue. Gújar Singh held the District throughout his life, and left it on his death to his son, Sáhib Singh, who fell in 1810 before the power of the great Ranjít Singh. Another Sikh Sardár, Milka Singh, fixed upon the site of Ráwal Pindi town, then occupied by an insignificant village, for his headquarters. In spite of Afghán inroads, and the resistance of the Ghakkars, he soon conquered on his own account a tract of country round Ráwal Pindi worth three *lákhs* of

rupees (£30,000). He died in 1804, and his estates were confirmed to his son, Jiún Singh, by Ranjít Singh, until 1814, when, upon Jiún Singh's death, they were annexed to the general territory of Lahore. The Murree (Marri) and other hills long retained their independence under their Ghakkar chieftains; but in 1830 the Sikhs succeeded in reducing them after a bloody struggle, by which the population was almost decimated, and the country reduced to a desert.

In 1849, Ráwal Pindi passed with the rest of the Sikh dominions under British rule; and though tranquillity was disturbed by an insurrection four years later, its administration was generally peaceful until the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857. The long anarchy and internecine strife of Sikh and Ghakkar could not be forgotten, especially in a wild and lonely region, where British organization extends with difficulty to the remote gorges and scattered hamlets of a rocky labyrinth. The events of 1857 offered an outlet for the smouldering passions of ancestral feud, and the Murree (Marri) Hills became the scene of an attempted insurrection. The authorities received information from a faithful native of a projected attack upon the station, in time to concert measures for defence. The ladies, who were present in large numbers, were placed in safety; the Europeans and police were drawn up in a cordon around the station; and when the enemy arrived, expecting no resistance, they met with a hot reception, which caused them to withdraw in disorder, and shortly after to disband themselves. The District has since experienced no serious commotion; but crimes of violence are frequent.

Population.—In a District so extensive and so rugged as Ráwal Pindi, it is naturally difficult to conduct an enumeration of the people with minute accuracy, and there are grounds for doubting the correctness of all statistics prior to the Census of 1868. An enumeration in 1855 returned the total population as 553,750. In 1868, the total number was ascertained to be 711,256, showing an increase for the thirteen years of 157,506 persons, or 28 per cent. Though the long period of peace and prosperity which Ráwal Pindi has enjoyed since the British occupation would suffice to account for a large augmentation of numbers, a considerable part of this apparent increase must be set down to under-enumeration in 1855. The last enumeration in 1881 returned the population at 820,512, showing a still further increase of 109,256, or 15·3 per cent., in the thirteen years since 1868. This increase, although largely due to the natural excess of births over deaths, is also in great part owing to immigration caused by the extraordinary demand for labour in connection with the Punjab Northern State Railway, and transport arrangements for the Kábul campaign.

The general results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized

as follows:—Area of District, 4861 square miles; towns 8, and villages 1639; number of houses, 124,896, namely, occupied 102,283, and unoccupied 22,613; number of families, 162,052. Total population, 820,512, namely, males 449,287, and females 371,225. The high proportion of males, 54·7 per cent., is due to the large immigration of labourers from other Districts, leaving their wives and families at home, and also to the considerable military element. Average density of population, 169 persons per square mile, varying from 68 per square mile in Pindi Gheb, to 275 per square mile in Ráwal Pindi *tahsíl*. Number of towns or villages per square mile, 0·34; persons per town or village, 498; houses per square mile, 26; persons per house, 8·02. Classified according to sex and age, the Census thus returns the population—under 15 years, males 176,126, and females 150,820; total children, 326,946, or 39·8 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 273,161, and females 220,405; total adults, 493,566, or 60·2 per cent.

Religion.—In religion, Ráwal Pindi is a stronghold of Muhammadanism, as many as 711,546, or 86·96 per cent. of the inhabitants, being returned as adherents of Islám. The Hindus are scantily represented by 86,162 persons, or 10·50 per cent. of the inhabitants; while the once dominant Sikhs number no more than 17,780 persons, or 2·16 per cent. The remainder consist of—Christians, 3822; Jains, 1033; and Pársís, 169. As regards the ethnical divisions of the people, the Bráhmans of Ráwal Pindi number 18,523 persons; but in this extreme northern corner, surrounded by an overwhelming Musalmán element, and engaged in commerce or agriculture, the Bráhmans find little scope for their priestly character, and indulge in many practices which would scandalize their stricter brethren in the south. Yet they are quite as minutely sub-divided as elsewhere into minor clans, each of which has its acknowledged rank in the social scale, and refuses to eat or intermarry with the inferior classes. The Rájputs are the strongest body numerically, having a total of 145,536 souls: their customs, however, require no special notice, and they are almost exclusively Muhammadans in creed. The principal trading classes are the Khattris (41,135) and the Arorás (12,181), both retaining the old Hindu faith, and, with their co-religionists the Bráhmans, monopolizing the commerce of the District. They replace the Baniyás of Hindustán proper, and are considered quite their equals in rapacity and cunning. The Játs number 47,935, almost all Muhammadans, and keep up their usual reputation as careful and industrious agriculturists. In the eastern half of the District they form the principal labouring population. The Ghakkars, whose history has been already detailed, now amount to only 10,667 persons. They are a fine and spirited race, gentlemen in ancestry and bearing, and clinging under all reverses to the traditions

of noble blood. Though reduced to poverty in many cases by the Sikhs, they are still respected in the District as a native aristocracy, and would come to the front, for good or for evil, in any period of general disturbance.

The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consists of—Patháns, 36,465; Shaikhs, 25,524; Mughals, 25,169; and Sayyids, 20,422. The other tribes and classes are mainly descendants of Hindu converts, but are now almost exclusively Muhammadans by religion, with a slight Hindu or Sikh element. The principal of these tribes are—Awáns, 124,834 in number; Maniars, 41,701; Juláhas, 37,001; Gújars, 25,403; Kashmíris, 23,803; Tarkhans, 22,450; Chuhras, 22,046; Muchís, 20,385; Kumbhárs, 14,668; Telís, 12,384; Lohárs, 12,236; Nais, 11,996; Jhinwars, 8632; Sonárs, 6523; Mirásís, 6205; Darzís, 6109; and Dhobís, 5751.

Town and Rural Population.—The population of Ráwal Pindi District is almost entirely rural, and the great bulk of the inhabitants are scattered in tiny hamlets over the face of the country. The Census Report returns eight towns, as being civil stations, municipalities, or cantonments. These are—RAWAL PINDI town, population (1881) 52,975; PINDI GHEB, 8583; HAZRO, 6533; FATEHJANG, 4875; ATTOCK, 4210; MOKHAD, 4195; MURREE, 2489; and CAMPBELLPUR, 1467. The population of Murree during the height of the summer season rises as high as eight thousand. Of the 1647 towns and villages in the District, 621 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 584 between two hundred and five hundred; 279 between five hundred and a thousand; 121 between one and two thousand; 26 between two and three thousand; 13 between three and five thousand; and 3 upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

Material Condition of the People.—The people, as a rule, are well off; the assessment of the land revenue is light, and the profits of the farmer are large. A holding of 15 acres of average land will enable a man to support his family in tolerable comfort. The number of large incomes, however, is not great. The ordinary expenditure of a well-to-do cultivator is estimated as varying from 18s. per month in the western portion of the District to £1, 4s. in the east. For this sum an ordinary family of, say, five persons can live comfortably. A shopkeeper, who has to buy what a cultivator supplies from his own garden-plot, will spend from £1, 4s. per month in the west to £1, 10s. in the east of the District. The lowest sum upon which an adult can support life is 4s. per month in the west, and 5s. per month in the east of the District. The most ordinary social distinction among the people is that of *sahu* or gentleman, and *zamíndár* or cultivator: the Ghakkars, Rájputs, and Sayyids are considered as belonging to the former class; while the Játs and Awáns may be looked upon as typifying the latter.

The dwellings of the people, even of the better sort, are mostly constructed of unburnt bricks, single-storied, and generally not more than 8 or 10 feet high. Except in the case of some of the Ghakkar gentry, and a few notabilities, a house constructed of burnt brick, and cemented with lime and mortar, is unknown. In the Mokhad hills and other localities, stone cemented with mud and unplastered is much used. In general, however, the houses are plastered with mud and cow-dung, having flat roofs. Across the rafters, the roof is covered with branches and leaves, upon which mud is beaten, well plastered with earth mixed with chopped straw, and above all a cow-dung coating. Glass windows and hinges are unknown; even in the best dwellings the doors revolve in wooden sockets, and are closed with a chain and rough padlock. The interior of the dwelling presents, even among the ordinary class of peasantry, an appearance of great comfort. Although the walls and floors are rough and uneven, they have a light-coloured appearance, from constant hand-rubbing with a mixture of light clay and cow-dung. The furniture ordinarily consists of a few pallets (*chárpái*), some stools, spindles, a grain receptacle, and a box or trunk for clothing, etc. An adjoining shed shelters the cattle and horses, and another the store of fooder. An enclosure, called *sahn* or *vehra*, forms a kind of compound; and this, with an adjacent higher one for sheep and goats, built of strong prickly thorns so as to keep out wolves, completes the habitation of one family. In each village are one or more *hújrás*, or general assembly rooms, where travellers are entertained, and all questions relating to the village or section of the village are discussed. A number of the foregoing clumps of dwellings, massed together, without the slightest regard for symmetry, so as to leave narrow lanes, scarcely wide enough to allow a laden donkey to pass; one or more *hújrás;* one or two neat mosques, and a clump of trees—the whole planted on a slightly elevated site above the level of the surrounding country—make up a rural village in Ráwal Pindi.

The ordinary food of the people consists chiefly of *bájra* (spiked millet) during the winter months, and of wheat mixed with barley in the summer. In bad years, the poorer classes content themselves with a kind of pulse, called *bhakra*, which grows as a trailing creeper in great profusion. Meat, *ghí* (clarified butter), *dál*, spices, and vegetables are eaten, when they can be afforded. Ten per cent. of the population drink spirits; *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp) is largely smoked. Kashmiris and Patháns drink tea.

The almost universal dress is white cotton of a coarse description, with an occasional blue turban and waistband, loose white trousers (*paijáma*), and leather shoes. In Chach and Mokhad, where the population is almost entirely Afghán, the dress of the lower orders is

indigo blue, which tints the hands and faces of the wearers, giving them a wild and forbidding appearance. In these tracts, and generally in the western part of the District, the turbans worn are of vast dimensions, and look very imposing. In Khatar, and generally in the hilly tracts bordering on the Indus, sandals, called *kheri*, are worn instead of leather shoes. The women wear the same kind of costume as the men, with the exception of their trousers, which are generally of cotton, dyed blue, with red or yellow lines from top to bottom.

As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returned the adult male population under the following seven classes—(1) Professional class, including all Government officials, civil and military, 17,209; (2) domestic and menial class, 7995; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 10,091; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 145,611; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including all artisans, 62,560; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, 27,151; (7) unspecified, 2544.

Agriculture.—According to the Punjab Administration Report for 1883–84, out of a total District area of 4937½ square miles, or 3,160,116 acres, 1,220,916 acres were under cultivation, 316,800 acres were cultivable, and 1,622,400 acres were uncultivable waste. The staple spring crop of the District is wheat, while *bájra* (spiked millet) forms the mainstay of the autumn harvest. The other crops are—gram, barley, and mustard-seed in the spring; and *joár* (great millet), Indian corn, cotton, and the common pulses in the autumn harvest. Rice is grown to a small extent in the Murree hills, but is of an inferior quality. The cotton too, though improved of late years, is still inferior, being grown only on unirrigated land. Wheat, gram, and rice are increasing in importance as staple products, while the inferior crops of *bájra, joár*, and Indian corn, on the other hand, are less cultivated than they used to be. The potato was introduced in the Murree hills shortly after annexation. Some years elapsed before its cultivation became general, but it is now recognised as a lucrative crop, and almost every hill village has its patch of potato cultivation. The people themselves consume the produce to a certain extent; but the greater part is sold in Murree or exported to the plains. Experiments have been made with tea, but in spite of great care and solicitude, every attempt to naturalize the shrub has failed. The area under the principal crops in 1883–84 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 436,262 acres; *bájra*, 326,330 acres; Indian corn, 55,277 acres; gram, 36,959 acres; *joár*, 24,169 acres; pulses and other food-grains, 67,237 acres; oil-seeds, 108,314 acres; cotton, 16,036 acres; vegetables, 3160. Sugar-cane, tobacco, drugs, spices, etc., are grown over small areas.

As almost every field in the District is more or less on an incline, the rain-water rapidly drains away, without benefiting the soil; and it has

been necessary in most cases to retard its escape by a rude system of terraces, embanked at their lower extremity. A more ambitious work, requiring the co-operation of villages and expenditure of capital, is the embankment of ravines, which is practised to some extent both here and in the neighbouring District of Jehlam. Irrigation by any other mode is little employed, and the total irrigated area in 1883-84 was returned at only 34,421 acres. The manured lands yield two crops a year, or are sometimes sown for three consecutive harvests with wheat and *bájra* alternately, and lie fallow for the fourth; inferior soils are made to bear two crops in the same year (wheat, followed by *bájra*), and then recruit during the following twelve months. Rotation of crops in any higher form is unknown. The average produce per acre is given in the Government returns for 1883-84 as follows:—Rice, 654 lbs.; wheat, 680 lbs.; inferior grains, 658 lbs.; oil-seeds, 330 lbs.; and cotton, 98 lbs.

The peasantry are in comfortable circumstances; their houses are neatly furnished and fairly clean, and they are gradually extricating themselves from the village money-lender. Under Sikh rule, it is calculated that 50 per cent. of the cultivators were in debt; at present, only 10 per cent. are believed to be so involved. The tenures of the District are very varied, from the ancestral *zamíndárí*, or undivided holding with division of profits, to the modern occupancy right of tenants. Rents vary according to the nature of the soil and the caste and social status of the tenant. A tenant with occupancy rights pays a rent of 4s. 6d. an acre for average land; while a tenant-at-will pays 5s. 9d. for the same land. The ordinary range of rent may be put down at from 5s. to 6s. an acre for the higher class of tenants, and from 4s. to 8s. for the lower class. In many parts of the District, however, especially near Gújar Khán, all tenants alike pay their rent in kind, at rates varying from one-fourth to one-half of the produce. Both cash and grain rates for tenants-at-will are steadily rising; and many who at the time of the last Land Settlement paid only a one-fourth or a two-fifths share of the produce, are now glad to pay a one-half share. The Government land revenue assessment in 1883-84 amounted to £73,005, being at the rate of 1s. 2d. per cultivated acre.

Wages have increased from 50 to 75 per cent. since the Sikh rule. In towns they are paid in cash, unskilled labourers receiving from 3d. to 6d., and skilled labourers from 6d. to 1s. 3d. a day. The agricultural labourer generally receives his wages in kind. The *zamíndár* requiring extra labour obtains it from his neighbours who have no work of their own to do, and in return supplies them with food once daily. This system is called *lehtri*, and recourse is had to it for carrying on the operations of ploughing, sowing, and reaping. The other plan goes

by the name of *lehar;* under it the *kamíns* or village menials, or hill-men, or poor people from other estates, are employed to reap the harvest, and are paid in kind at the rate of one-twentieth part of what they gather during the day. Prices were returned as follows in January 1884:—Wheat, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; barley and *joár*, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 45 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 6d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 11½d. per cwt.; rice, 6½ *sers* per rupee, or 17s. 4d. per cwt.

Ráwal Pindi is a considerable stock-breeding District. The best horses are found in Fatehjang and Pindi Gheb *tahsíls*, where the large size of the holdings in the hands of comparatively wealthy landholders gives greater facility for breeding. The horses are somewhat slight and small, but are well-bred and fiery. Great difficulty, however, is experienced in inducing breeders to bestow sufficient care upon the young colts. They tie them up in close dark quarters, and put them to work while still too young. Most breeders find it too expensive to keep their colts for more than a year, and they sell them at this age to merchants from beyond the Indus. The breed, however, has much improved since the institution of the Ráwal Pindi annual horse fair, at which large numbers are sold as remounts for the Native cavalry, though few are as yet found suitable for British cavalry regiments. Very fine mules are also bred in considerable numbers; and owing to the greater ease with which these animals are reared, and the earlier age at which they can be put to work, this is said to act detrimentally to horse-rearing as being more profitable. In 1884, there were in the District 3228 branded brood mares—1090 for horse-breeding and 2138 for mule-breeding. Twenty-five horse stallions and 52 donkey stallions are stationed by Government throughout the District, at places where they are most in request. At the annual horse and mule fair in 1883, out of 1394 animals exhibited, 819 were sold. Prizes were awarded to the amount of £200. Camels of a fine breed are reared in several parts of the District. Ráwal Pindi was formerly noted for its camels; and although the stock is said to have fallen off since the time of the Mutiny, it still contains a larger number of camels than any other District in the Punjab. Goats and sheep are reared, not so much for sale, as for the wants of the people themselves, and for the sale of the goats' hair and sheep wool, which is exported. The agricultural stock in the District in 1883–84 is returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 300,871; horses, 9296; donkeys, 33,258; sheep and goats, 417,144; and camels, 24,149.

Natural Calamities.—In 1843–44, during the Sikh supremacy, Ráwal Pindi was devastated by an incursion of locusts, which overran the whole country in enormous swarms, and for a while almost succeeded in depopulating the District. They appeared just in time to devour

the whole autumn crop of 1843; they remained for the succeeding spring crops; and at last they took their departure after utterly destroying the autumn harvest of 1844. Ráwal Pindi is still suffering from the remote effects of this terrible visitation. The Sikh authorities insisted upon realizing the utmost farthing of their revenue from the starving cultivators, who were obliged to have recourse to the trading classes, and so commenced a system of chronic indebtedness, which has not even yet entirely passed away. The tenures of land were completely revolutionized, to the great disadvantage of the proprietary class, as the Sikhs admitted tenants to share the burdens and privileges of the landowners, in order the more readily to collect their exorbitant imposts. The British courts were for long flooded with litigation, arising from the disorganization of this unhappy period.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—So rugged a District as Ráwal Pindi has naturally but little commerce, and that little is concentrated at the head-quarters town and at Házro. The only productions that give rise to any large export trade are food-grains and oil-seeds; but this only happens in years of good harvests. During 1880, 1881, and 1882, grain was imported. In 1883 the export of grain was abnormally large. Among the imports are piece-goods from Amritsar and Calcutta, sugar and *gúr* from Jálandhar, hardware from Amritsar and Lahore, cotton from Districts south of Jehlam, salt from Pind Dádan Khán, indigo from Múltán, rice from Pesháwar and Swát. Trade with Kashmír is registered at two posts, Lakshman ferry and Murree. In 1882–83, the imports into Ráwal Pindi from Kashmír amounted to £116,959 in value, consisting principally of *charas*, *ghí*, rice, raw silk, shawls, timber, fruit, and dyes; the exports from Ráwal Pindi into Kashmír were valued at £55,577, principally piece-goods, metals, salt, and sugar.

Snuff of excellent quality is manufactured at Házro, and is exported to Kashmír and Amritsar. Cotton spinners and weavers of country cloth are found in almost every village; and in Fatehjang and Pindi Gheb coarse woollen blankets are manufactured, which find a market at Ráwal Pindi and Pesháwar towns. Soap is made at Ráwal Pindi, Pindi Gheb, and Fatehjang. Leather manufactures are of considerable extent, and there is also a large manufacture of oil. European industry is represented by a brewery at Murree, established in 1860. The beer is of excellent quality, and commands a ready sale. A gaswork has been recently established at Ráwal Pindi town. The gas is extracted from locally obtained petroleum; but owing to the limited supply of the material, the gas produced has been hitherto barely sufficient to light the barracks and hospital of one European regiment. The wealth resulting from long and settled peace finds its way into the hands of the cultivating classes, and is chiefly hoarded in the form of jewellery. A great horse fair is held annually at Ráwal Pindi town, at

which Government prizes are distributed, and animals from all parts of the Punjab are exhibited and sold.

Means of Communication.—The Grand Trunk Road was till recently the principal means of communication; its section within the District amounts to 100 miles. The other main lines of road are—Ráwal Pindi to Murree, 39 miles; the Kashmír road from Murree to Kohala, 20 miles; and the Ráwal Pindi and Kohát road, 66 miles. There are also unmetalled roads from Hassan Abdál to Abbottábád, Campbellpur to Lawrencepur, 9 miles; Pindi Gheb to Pind Sultání, 20 miles; Ráwal Pindi to Kahúta *viâ* Kotli, 49 miles; Fatehjang to Kálábágh, 23 miles; to Talágang, 17½ miles; and to Chakwál, 13¼ miles; and from Murree *viâ* Kotli and Karor to Ráwal Pindi, 54 miles. Total length of metalled roads in 1883–84, 135 miles; unmetalled roads, 1123 miles. The Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore to Pesháwar now enters the District from the Jehlam border, and runs a course parallel with the Grand Trunk Road to Attock, where the magnificent bridge over the Indus, completed in 1883, carries both the railway and road across the river. A branch line of railway runs from Ráwal Pindi station to Kushalgarh. Total length of railways (1883–84), 166 miles. The Indus is navigable throughout its whole course of 96 miles through Ráwal Pindi District by native craft, and becomes practicable for steamers below Mokhad. The Jehlam is not navigable in any portion of its course in Ráwal Pindi. Three telegraph lines traverse the District, namely, the main wire from Lahore to Pesháwar, a branch from Ráwal Pindi to the hill station at Murree (Marri), and a line to Kohát *viâ* Kushalgarh.

Administration.—The ordinary administrative staff of this extensive District comprises a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant, 3 Assistant and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 Cantonment Magistrate, 7 *tahsíldárs*, 4 *munsifs*, and 9 honorary magistrates, besides the ordinary medical and constabulary officers. There are garrisons at Ráwal Pindi, Murree (Marri), Attock, and Campbellpur. The total revenue in 1872–73 amounted to £89,226, of which £68,659, or more than three-fourths of the whole, was derived from the land-tax. By 1883–84, the revenue had increased to £108,109, while the land-tax remained stationary at £68,878. The other principal items of revenue are stamps, local rates, excise, and opium. In 1883 the District contained 18 first-class and 10 second-class police stations, and the regular police numbered 1022 men of all ranks, being 1 constable to every 803 inhabitants and to every 4·7 square miles. Crimes of violence are still unhappily common; human life is lightly regarded by the wild tribes of the western gorges, and the ancestral blood-feuds are only lulled for a while by the severity of English law. Murders prompted by conjugal jealousy are also of frequent occurrence. The District jail at Ráwal Pindi and lock-ups at Murree and Attock contained a

total of 790 prisoners in 1883. The Salt Revenue Department has a preventive establishment maintained at 15 guard posts along 77 miles of the Indus, with the object of preventing the transit of cheap Kohát salt from the right to the left bank of that river.

Education is making satisfactory progress. In 1883–84, the Government aided and inspected schools under the Education Department numbered 133, with 8933 pupils. There are also 874 indigenous village schools in the District. In 1881, the Census Report returned 8899 boys and 516 girls as under instruction, besides 24,873 males and 763 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. Female education, especially, has made rapid strides of late years, through the benevolent exertions of Bedi Khem Singh, a native gentleman of Kallár, who has established 25 girls' schools in this District, besides others in Jehlam (Jhelum); they are chiefly attended by Hindu children, though there is also a fair sprinkling of Muhammadans. The Lawrence Memorial Asylum at Murree is devoted to the education of the children of European soldiers. There is a school for the benefit of the children of European residents at Murree in the hot season, which is transferred to Ráwal Pindi during the winter. There is also a Church of England and a Roman Catholic school for girls at Murree. Since 1882, schools for European boys and girls have been established in Ráwal Pindi town, where there is also a normal school for training teachers.

There are municipalities at Ráwal Pindi, Murree, Attock, Házro, Pindigheb, and Mokhad. The total revenue of these 6 municipalities in 1883–84 amounted to £16,477, being at the rate of 4s. 2¾d. per head of their population.

Cantonments and Troops.—The principal military station in the District is the cantonment of Ráwal Pindi, situated within a mile of the city, on the opposite bank of the river Leh. At Murree there is a convalescent depôt, and within a four miles' radius of the sanitarium are camps Kuldanah, Thoba, Ghariál, and the Cliffden depôt. There is also a small cantonment at Campbellpur; and the bridge of boats and ferry over the Indus are guarded by Fort Attock. The ordinary garrison of Ráwal Pindi during the cold weather consists of one battery of horse and one of field artillery, and three mountain batteries; one regiment of British and one of Native cavalry, two regiments of British and two of Native infantry, and a company of sappers and miners. Of these the mountain batteries are quartered in the gullies of Hazára District, and one British infantry regiment in the Murree Hills, with headquarters at camp Kuldanah during the hot season, while detachments of the artillery and cavalry, and of the other British infantry regiments, are quartered at camp Ghariál; so that all the British troops of the garrison pass a portion at least of the hot weather in the hills. Murree is garrisoned during the season by convalescents detached

from the Ráwal Pindi and Pesháwar Divisions, and the married women and children are stationed at Cliffden. Campbellpur is garrisoned by two batteries of artillery, and Fort Attock by detachments from the British infantry regiment quartered at Naushahra in the Pesháwar Division, one of the Native infantry regiments at Ráwal Pindi, and the battery at Campbellpur. The cantonments and military posts of the District belong to the Ráwal Pindi Division, and the troops are under the command of the general officer commanding that Division. The Ráwal Pindi fort, which has five faces, with a bastion at each corner on which heavy guns are mounted, contains an arsenal and barracks for two companies of infantry or a heavy battery. There are good positions for defence on the east and west of the station. The south-west side is covered by a network of *nalas*, which render approach from that direction very difficult. The head-quarters of two companies of the 1st Punjab Volunteer Corps are at Ráwal Pindi. A cadet company is composed of the boys of the Murree Lawrence Asylum.

Medical Aspects.—Ráwal Pindi has two rainy seasons, the first from January to March, and the second from July to August. During the winter, the weather is cold and even severe, but in summer the heat cannot be exceeded in any part of India. Notwithstanding the excessive heat of May, June, and part of July, the climate of Ráwal Pindi is noted for its salubrity, and the District is one of the healthiest for European troops in the Province. The climate of the Murree Hills is said to be peculiarly adapted to the English constitution. The average annual mean temperature in the shade at Ráwal Pindi is returned at 69·4° F., and at Murree, 56·1° F. In 1883, the maximum, minimum, and mean temperatures of the two stations were returned as follows:—Ráwal Pindi—May—max. 107·5°, min. 59·1°, mean 82·1°; July—max. 108°, min. 68·7°, mean 87·8°; December—max. 69·9°, min. 30·5°, mean 50·8°. Murree—May—max. 84·9°, min. 43·8°, mean 66·8°; July—max. 85°, min. 57·4°, mean 70·4°; December—max. 58·8°, min. 29·9°, mean 44·4°. The average annual rainfall for a period of seventeen years ending 1882–83 is returned at 30·7 inches at Ráwal Pindi, and 47·1 inches at Murree. In 1883, 27·6 inches of rain were registered at Ráwal Pindi, and 37·5 inches at Murree. The principal disease of the District is fever, which exists in an endemic form. The total number of reported deaths from all causes in 1883 was 21,477, or at the rate of 26 per thousand. Of these deaths, as many as 16,738, or 20·40 per thousand, were assigned to fever alone. Nine charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 2291 in-door and 92,337 out-door patients in 1883. Cattle diseases are very prevalent, and carry off a large number of the live-stock.

Ráwal Pindi.—*Tahsíl* in the north-east of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying along the foot of the Murree (Marri) Hills. Area, 769

square miles, with 1 town and 442 villages; number of houses, 24,107, of which 18,024 are occupied and 6083 unoccupied; number of families, 27,089. Total population (1881) 211,275, namely, males 122,467, and females 88,808; proportion of males, 57·9 per cent. The high proportion of males is owing to the large military population of the Ráwal Pindi cantonment. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Muhammadans, 165,734; Hindus, 35,502; Sikhs, 5886; Jains, 940; Christians, 3052; and Pársís, 161. Of a total area of 769 square miles, the average area under crops for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 was returned at 317 square miles, or 202,909 acres; the area under the principal crops being—wheat, 81,686 acres; *bájra*, 46,743 acres; Indian corn, 11,389 acres; barley, 11,224 acres; *moth*, 11,044 acres; *joár*, 7263 acres; cotton, 7657 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £14,789. The administrative staff (including all the head-quarter officers of the Division and District) consisted in 1884 of the Commissioner of the Ráwal Pindi Division, the Deputy Commissioner of the District, a Judicial Assistant Commissioner, 3 Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners, Judge of the Small Cause Court, *tahsíldár*, 2 *munsifs*, and 3 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 11 civil and 11 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 164 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 223.

Ráwal Pindi.—Town, municipality, large military cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Ráwal Pindi Division and District, Punjab; situated in 33° 37′ N. lat., and 73° 6′ E. long., on the north bank of the river Leh, a muddy, sluggish stream, flowing between lofty and precipitous banks, and separating the town from the cantonments.

The present town is of quite modern origin; but General Cunningham has identified certain ruins on the site of the cantonments with the ancient city of Gajipur or Gajnipur, the capital of the Bhatti tribe in the ages preceding the Christian era. Greek and other early coins, together with ancient bricks, occur over an area of two square miles. Known within historial times as Fatehpur Baori, Ráwal Pindi fell into decay during one of the Mughal invasions in the 14th century. Jhanda Khán, a Ghakkar chief, restored the town, and gave it its present name. Sardár Milka Singh, a Sikh adventurer, occupied it in 1765, and invited traders from the neighbouring commercial centres of Jehlam (Jhelum) and Sháhpur to settle in his territory. In the beginning of the present century, Ráwal Pindi became for a time the refuge of Sháh Shujá, the exiled Amír of Kábul, and of his brother Sháh Zamán. The present native infantry lines mark the site of a battle fought by the Ghakkars under their famous chief Sultán Mukaráb Khán in the middle of the last century. It was at Ráwal Pindi, on the 14th March 1849, that the Sikh army under Chattar Singh

and Sher Singh finally laid down their arms after the battle of Gujrát. On the introduction of British rule, Ráwal Pindi became the site of a British cantonment, and shortly afterwards the head-quarters of a Division; while its recent connection with the main railway system by the extension of the Punjab Northern State Railway to Pesháwar has immensely developed both its size and commercial importance.

The population of Ráwal Pindi town, civil station, and cantonment has almost doubled within the thirteen years between 1868 and 1881. In 1868, the total population was returned at 28,586, and in 1881 at 52,975, namely, males 35,985, and females 16,990. The population of the city proper, including the civil lines, increased from 19,228 in 1868 to 26,785 in 1881. Classified according to religion, the population of the town and cantonment in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans, 23,664; Hindus, 23,419; Sikhs, 1919; Jains, 904; and 'others' (nearly all Christians, with a few Pársís), 3069. Number of houses, 8029. The municipal revenue, which in 1875–76 amounted to £5129, had increased by 1883–84 to £11,984. It is mainly derived from octroi duties levied on articles of food brought within the city or cantonments.

The cantonments are separated from the native town by the little river Leh, and occupy the site of an ancient Hindu city (*vide supra*). The buildings cover an area of three miles in length by two in breadth. In 1868, the cantonments contained a total population of 9358, including English and native troops. Since the last Afghán campaign, Ráwal Pindi has much increased in importance as a military station, and in 1881 the cantonments contained a total population of 26,190, or nearly three times the population of 1868. The garrison usually consists of one regiment of European cavalry, two regiments of European infantry, one regiment of Native cavalry, and two regiments of Native infantry, with two batteries of artillery (horse and field), increased in the cold weather by three mountain batteries, which in the summer occupy the hills north of Murree. An arsenal was established at Ráwal Pindi in 1883. The cantonment contains several European shops.

The principal buildings of Ráwal Pindi station are the courts of the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner, Cantonment Magistrate's court, Brigade Commissariat Transport offices, and office of the Paymaster, Punjab circle, all within the civil lines. The native town contains the *tahsíl* building, police station, municipal hall, and city hospital, all situated at the point where the road from the cantonments, an extension of the *sadr bázár*, enters the city. At the same point are the large *sarái* or native inn, the Presbyterian Mission Church, and the Mission School. A large and handsome public garden is maintained by the municipality; and an extensive park, thickly planted with trees and shrubs, and intersected with winding paths and drives, has been

laid out by the District authorities near the jail. The park is a favourite evening and morning resort of the Europeans of the station. The garrison church, a large but unpicturesque building, contains a window in memory of the late Bishop Milman of Calcutta, who died and was buried at Ráwal Pindi in 1876.

The railway station, telegraph office, and post-office are all fine massive buidings. There are also the station club, three good European hotels, several European shops, and a branch of the Alliance Bank of Simla. The main *bázár* contains numerous good Pársí and other shops, and the office of the *Punjab Times*. At the entrance to the *bázár*, a fine archway has been erected in remembrance of Brigadier-General Massy; and a handsome and spacious market, built by Sardár Sujan Singh at a cost of £20,000, perpetuates the memory of the same officer. The barracks and church are lit with gas manufactured from petroleum found in the District. The educational and charitable institutions at Ráwal Pindi include a normal school for training teachers, schools for European boys and girls, a civil hospital, and leper asylum. Ráwal Pindi is also the head-quarters of the Manager and other heads of Departments of the Punjab Northern State Railway. The fort, which also contains the arsenal, has five faces, with a bastion at each corner on which heavy guns are mounted.

The oldest portion of the town is its north-eastern corner, where the *bázárs* are narrow and crooked, after the fashion of most native cities of small size. But elsewhere the streets are broad, straight, handsome, and regular; and as a result of this, and of the excellent drainage and sanitary arrangements, Ráwal Pindi is said to present a cleaner appearance than probably any other town in Northern India. Trees have been freely planted, and give the station a very pleasing appearance.

A considerable portion of the trade of the Punjab with Kashmír passes through Ráwal Pindi, in 1882 amounting to as much as 31 per cent. of the import and 16 per cent. of the export trade of the Province with Kashmír. Wheat and other grains are largely collected at Ráwal Pindi and exported to other parts of the Punjab. Some of the commercial houses have very extensive dealings; and there are several native banking houses of high standing. There are no manufactures or industries of importance. The chief articles manufactured are *súsi*, a coarse kind of cloth, dyed blue and red and used for women's attire; cotton cloth, shoes, blankets, combs, and snuff. Oil, soap, and untanned leather jars (*kupás*) are also made. The great majority of the town population consists of Ghakkars, Bhattis, Awáns, Kashmíris, Khattris, and Bráhmans, the last two having a monopoly of the trade.

Ráya.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab, extending along the bank of the river Rávi. Area, 476 square miles; towns

and villages, 461; number of houses, 26,936, namely, occupied 23,907, and unoccupied 3029; number of families, 40,775. Total population (1881) 194,205, namely, males 104,472, and females 89,733; proportion of males, 53·8 per cent. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Muhammadans, 129,796; Hindus, 53,214; Sikhs, 11,084; Jains, 24; and Christians, 87. Average density of population, 408 persons per square mile. Of the 461 towns and villages, 333 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 97 from five hundred to a thousand; and 31 from one to five thousand inhabitants. Of a total area of 476 square miles, the average annual area under crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 was returned at 268 square miles, or 171,279 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 85,272 acres; barley, 17,749 acres; rice, 12,684 acres; Indian corn, 8353 acres; *joár*, 6712 acres; other food-grains, 3173 acres; sugar-cane, 8016 acres; cotton, 4910 acres; tobacco, 1182 acres; and vegetables, 1255 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £24,120. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, a *munsif*, and an honorary magistrate. These officers preside over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 58 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 497.

Rayachoti.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 51′ to 14° 20′ N., long. 78° 28′ to 79° 10′ E. Area, 998 square miles. Population (1871) 128,162; (1881) 92,541, namely, 47,376 males and 45,165 females, occupying 21,734 houses, in 1 town and 92 villages. Hindus number 82,295; Muhammadans, 10,178; Christians, 63; and 'others,' 5. The *táluk* is the most central in the District. The general appearance is that of a level with here and there some scattered granite rocks, and with a horizontal line of unbroken hills closing in the horizon to the north and east. The soils are of different kinds, the red predominating. The *táluk* is well provided with roads, all of which centre in the chief town, Rayachoti, where seven roads meet. Rice and *sujja* (Holcus spicatus) are the principal products. Manufactures are few, and are confined to indigo, common cloth, coarse blankets, and gunny-bags. Good pasture-grounds abound all over the *táluk*, and except in very bad years there is no want of grazing. A large portion of the *táluk* lies waste, owing to the cultivators having no capital with which to bring it under cultivation, and no market to which to take the produce when grown. The cattle are small but hardy. The *táluk* contained in 1883—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 87 men. Land revenue, £11,534.

Rayachoti.—Head-quarters of Rayachoti *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 4′ N., long. 78° 50′ E. Situated on the banks of the Mandávi river, with seven roads converging on it. Population (1881) 4367, dwelling in 912 houses. Hindus numbered

2634; Muhammadans, 1729; and Christians, 4. The town has little trade; weekly market and old temple. The annual car festival is attended by about 6000 persons.

Ráyadrug.—*Táluk* and town in Bellary District, Madras Presidency. —*See* RAIDRUG.

Ráyagudda (or *Rájágudda*).—Kandh village in Jaipur *zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 9′ 40″ N., long. 83° 27′ 30″ E.; 33 miles north-west of Párvatipur. Formerly residence of the Jaipur Rájá. Population (1881) 2039, occupying 468 houses. Hindus numbered 1970, mostly Uriya Bráhmans; and Muhammadans, 69. Sub-magistrate's station, with thriving trade.

Ráyak.—Village and police outpost in the Garo Hills District, Assam; on the Someswarí river. Considerable population engaged in fishing.

Ráyakottai.—Village in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 31′ N., long. 78° 5′ E. Population (1871) 1881; (1881) 1087, dwelling in 214 houses. Hindus number 976; Muhammadans, 102; and Christians, 9. Ráyakottai was formerly a favourite place of residence for military pensioners, who have, especially since the famine of 1876–78, abandoned it in large numbers. North of the town stands the *durgam* (hill fort) Ráyakottai, one of the Báramahál fortresses, until recently occupied by troops. It commanded one of the most important passes, and its capture by Major Gowdie in 1791 was the first exploit in Lord Cornwallis' great march. The fort was ceded to the English by the treaty of 1792; and it was under its walls that the army of General Harris encamped in 1799, before entering Mysore territory on the way to Seringapatam. The remains of the fort (2449 feet above sea-level) still exist, as does also the European cemetery at the foot of the hill.

Ráyalcheruvu (*Ráyal's tank*).—Village in Naráinvaram *táluk* of Karwaitnagar *zamíndárí*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 30′ 5″ N., long. 79° 27′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 257, dwelling in 52 houses. The village is noteworthy on account of its large tank, built, it is said, by Krishnadeva Ráyalu of Vijianagar. The *bund* (embankment), resting on two hills, is half a mile long, 70 feet high, and 120 feet broad. The village was once of some importance, being on the road from Tirupati to Conjevaram (Kánchivaram), but pilgrims now use the north-west line of Madras Railway.

Ráyan.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 32′ N., long. 74° 17′ E.; 27 miles north-west of Jodhpur city. A fort, situated on a rock about 200 feet above the plain, commands the whole town. Estimated population, according to Boileau, 5650; not returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Ráyapet (*Ráyapetta, Royapet*).—Suburb of the city of MADRAS.

Ráyavalasa.—Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 15′ N., long. 83° 7′ E.; leading from Kásipur or Kásimkota to Jaipur by the abandoned sanitarium of Gallikonda. Crest of the pass, 2850 feet above the sea. The Mahárájá of Vizianágaram has a coffee estate here.

Raygad.—Town and fort in Kolába District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* RAIGARH.

Re (correctly *Ye*). — River of Lower Burma; rising near the Attaran, at the head of the valley formed by the Taung-nyo and Mahlwai Hills.—*See* YE.

Redi (or more properly *Yaswantgarh*).—Port and fort in Vengurla Sub-division, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 45′ 15″ N., and long. 73° 42′ 30″ E., 7 miles south of Vengurla, and 89 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town. Population not separately returned by the Census of 1881. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1881–82, £3420—viz. imports, £1990, and exports, £1430.—*See* RAIRI.

Re-gyí (correctly *Ye-gyí*). — Creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma.—*See* YE-GYI.

Re-gyí Pan-daw (correctly *Ye-gyí Pandaw*).—Town and head-quarters of the Ye-gyí township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* YE-GYI.

Rehlí.—Southern *tahsíl* or revenue Sub-division of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated between 23° 32′ and 24° 1′ N. lat., and between 78° 12′ and 79° 8′ E. long. Area, 1301 square miles; number of towns 3, and of villages 585; houses, 45,082, namely, occupied 38,207, and unoccupied 6875. Total population (1881) 168,870, namely, males 88,455, and females 80,415. Average density of population, 130 persons per square mile. The adult agricultural population (male and female) is returned at 45,837, or 27·14 per cent. of the total population of the Sub-division; average area of available cultivated and cultivable land, 11 acres per adult agriculturist. Of the total area of the *tahsíl* (1301 square miles), 421 square miles are held revenue free; while 880 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 432 square miles are cultivated, 253 square miles available for cultivation, and 195 square miles uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £14,591, or an average of 1s. 0⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by the cultivators, including cesses, £39,776, or an average of 2s. 9¾d. per cultivated acre. Rehlí Sub-division contained in 1883, 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; with 4 police circles (*thánás*), and 7 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 139 men; number of *chaukídárs* or village police, 405.

Rehlí.—Town and municipality in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, and the head-quarters of Rehlí Sub-division; situated in lat. 23° 38′ N., and long. 79° 5′ E., 28 miles south-east of Ságar town, in a healthy and fertile country, 1350 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 5230, namely, Hindus, 4589; Kabírpanthís, 54; Muhammadans, 481; Jains, 103; and 'others,' 3. Municipal income (1882–83), £442, of which £399 was derived from taxation, nearly entirely represented by octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 6¼d. per head of population. Chief manufacture, *gúr* or coarse sugar; which, with wheat, is largely exported. Markets are held twice a week, and skilled labour is readily procurable. The early Gond rulers were succeeded by a race of shepherds called Baladeo, who first settled at Khamária, a mile off, but afterwards removed to Rehlí, where they built a fort. The place next passed to the Bundelá chief of Panna, Rájá Chhatar Sál, who granted it with other territory to Bájí Ráo Peshwá, in return for his assistance against Muhammad Khán Bangash, the Governor of Farukhábád. The present fort was built by the Peshwá. It stands opposite the junction of the Sunár and Dehár rivers, on a height commanding the town, and encloses nearly 2 acres, once covered by Maráthá buildings. In 1817, Rehlí, with Ságar, was ceded to the British. The town has a handsome school-house, attended by 140 boys; a female school, attended by 32 girls; dispensary, and post-office.

Rekapalli.—Petty *táluk* of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Rekapalli *táluk*, with Bhadráchalam, was transferred from the Central Provinces in 1884, and now forms a part of the Agency tract of Godávari District. Area in Rekapalli *táluk*, together with Bhadráchalam, 911 square miles; population (1881) 35,656, namely, males 18,220, and females 17,436, occupying 6973 houses in 261 villages. Hindus number 34,725; Muhammadans, 661; and Christians, 270.

Re-keng (correctly *Ye-kin*).—Chief town of Ye-kin circle, Henzada District, Lower Burma, and head-quarters of an Assistant Commissioner. —*See* YE-KIN.

Relangi.—*Zamíndári* village in Tanuku *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 41′ 10″ N., long. 81° 41′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 5058, occupying 814 houses. Hindus numbered 4851, and Muhammadans 207.

Remdá.—Village in Bargarh *tahsíl*, Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2511, namely, Hindus 2468, and non-Hindu aborigines 43.

Remuná.—Village in Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. 21° 33′ N., long. 86° 59′ E.; 5 miles west of Balasor town. Celebrated for a religious fair held annually in February in honour of Kshíríchorá Gopi-

náth, a form of Krishna; it lasts about 13 days, and is attended by from 10,000 to 12,000 persons. About £600 worth of goods are sold, consisting chiefly of toys, sweetmeats, fruits, vegetables, country cloth, etc. The temple of the god is an unsightly stone edifice defaced by indecent sculptures. It is much frequented during the months of February, April, and November.

Rengan.—Petty State in Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 4 square miles. There are 8 chiefs. Estimated revenue, £104; tribute of £46, 2s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Rengmá.—Mountain group in the Nágá Hills, Assam, forming a portion of the range known as the Míkír Hills, lying between the Jamuna and Kaliání rivers. Lat. 26° 15′ to 26° 30′ N., and long. 93° 24′ to 93° 40′ E.; height, between 2000 and 3000 feet above sea-level. The slopes are steep, and clothed with dense jungle and underwood. The Rengmá Nágás, by whom this tract is now inhabited, are by far the least savage of the Nágá tribes, being scarcely distinguishable from the Míkírs, who occupy the tract to the north. They are immigrants from the more remote tracts of the Nágá Hills, lying to the east of the Dhaneswarí (Dhansiri) river, where some villages of the tribe still survive.

Rengtipahár.—Mountain range in the south of Cachar District, Assam; running northwards from the Lushái Hills, and forming the watershed between the Sonái and Dháleswarí rivers.

Reni.—Town in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5198, namely, Hindus, 3673; Muhammadans, 984; and 'others,' 541.

Reotí.—Town in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 51′ N., and long. 84° 25′ 13″ E., 12 miles from Bánsdih town. Population (1881) 9933, namely, Hindus 8897, and Muhammadans 1036. Reotí is the head-quarters of the Nikumbh Rájputs, and presents a dirty and overcrowded appearance. The principal proprietors are non-resident, and the resident Rájput *zamíndárs* have lost their hereditary influence, as seven-eighths of the town are now owned by strangers. The main street runs east and west, and is in fact a part of the Bairiá-Sahatwár road. A little manufacture of country cloth, shoes, and palanquins is carried on; but with this exception, Reotí is a mere agricultural centre, with little or no trade. Police station, middle school, and post-office. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Reotípur.—Town in Zamániá *tahsíl*, Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 25° 32′ 16″ N., and long. 83° 45′ 19″ E., 8 miles south-east of Gházípur town, and 12 miles north-east of Zamániá. Population (1881) 10,297, namely, Hindus 9720, and Muhammadans 577. Reotípur is a purely agricultural village of

mud huts, remarkable solely for its population. It belongs to the powerful clan of Sakarwár-Bhúinhárs, the owners of the large Sherpur-Reotipur *táluk* or estate. Anglo-vernacular school.

Repalli.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Kistna District, Madras Presidency. The *táluk* lies on the right bank of the Kistna river, extending from the sea to the Mangalagiri hills. Area, 644 square miles. Population (1881) 184,340, namely, 93,093 males and 91,247 females, occupying 31,415 houses, in 1 town and 147 villages. Hindus number 175,833; Muhammadans, 7014; Christians, 1467; and 'others,' 26. The surface of Repalli *táluk* is almost wholly composed of river alluvium, and some portions resemble Holland in lying below sea-level. It is well irrigated by anicut channels. In Repalli *táluk* are the ruins of Tsandavolu, a place of great antiquity, with a temple and Buddhist mound. Gold coins are frequently found here, and in 1874 some workmen came upon several masses of molten gold as large as bricks. In searching for concealed treasure, trenches have been dug in the village laying bare the solid masonry foundations of very extensive buildings. In 1883 the *táluk* contained—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 74 men. Land revenue, £73,058.

Repalli.—Head-quarters town of Repalli *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2998, namely, Hindus, 2769; Muhammadans, 227; and Christians, 2. Number of houses, 574. Fort in ruins, built in 1705 by the ancestors of the *zamíndár* or landowner who now occupies the precincts. Station of the *tahsíldár*. Post-office.

Resalpur.—Village in Hoshangábád *tahsíl*, Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2311, namely, Hindus, 2248; Muhammadans, 50; and non-Hindu aborigines, 13.

Re-tsú-daing (correctly *Ye-su-daing*).—Tidal creek in Thonegwa (Thún-khwa) District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* YE-SU-DAING.

Revelganj.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal.—*See* GODNA.

Rewá.—The principal Native State in Baghelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Baghelkhand Agency of Central India; lying between 22° 39′ and 25° 12′ N. lat., and between 80° 46′ and 82° 51′ E. long. Estimated area, 10,000 square miles. Population (1881) 1,305,124. Bounded on the north by the British Districts of Banda, Allahábád, and Mírzápur, in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by part of Mírzápur District and by Native States in Chutiá (Chota) Nágpur; on the south by the British Districts of Chhatísgarh, Mandla, and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Maihar, Nagode, Soháwal, and Kothi States in Baghelkhand.

The western and north-western portions of the State are occupied by

mountains, rising in three successive plateaux, or vast terraces, from the valley of the Ganges. Of these, the one lying to the north-east, and styled by Franklin the "Bindhachal," or First Range, is the lowest, having an average elevation of only 500 feet above the sea; it is formed of horizontal strata of sandstone, the upper surface presenting an expanse of very great sterility. Little of this plateau, however, is included within the limits of Rewá, the boundary of which on this side coincides nearly with the base of the second range, or Panna Hills. The elevation of these mountains is from 900 to 1200 feet above the sea. They consist of sandstone intermixed with schist and quartz, and, to the west, overlaid with limestone. Above this plateau, nearly parallel to the brow, but more to the south-east, rises the Káimur range. The Tons (south-eastern) and its tributaries, which drain the second plateau, descend to the lower levels in cascades, varying in height from that of Bilohi with 400 feet to that of Chachái with 200. About a third of the country lying south-east of the Káimur Hills constitutes part of the basin of the Són, a tract as yet almost unexplored. That great river, rising in the extreme south of Rewá, flows through the State in a north and north-easterly direction, crossing the north-eastern frontier into the District of Mírzápur. Its principal tributary is the Mahánadi, joining it on the left side, in lat. 24° 5′ N., and long. 81° 6′ E. The Tons, running north-east from Maihar, first touches the State in lat. 24° 25′ N., and long. 80° 55′ E., and draining the highlands, receives the Beher, the Biland, and several minor torrents. It holds a course generally north-easterly, and passes in lat. 25° 1′ N., and long. 81° 51′ E., into the British District of Allahábád, its length in Rewá being 80 miles. None of the rivers are navigable.'—*Condensed from Thornton.*

The State is rich in minerals and forest produce. A seam of coal of good quality has lately (1882–83) been discovered by the Geological Survey Department at Umária, a village in the *parganá* of Rámnagar, in the north-western extremity of Rewá State, 37 miles from Katni station on the Jabalpur extension of the East Indian Railway. The coal has been tested and found to be a valuable fuel. The Katni-Umária section of the Biláspur-Etáwah Railway, to bring the coal-fields in connection with the East Indian Railway system, has been sanctioned. Coal of even better quality has been found also in the valley of the Johilla river and at Sohágpur.

The prevailing classes of soil are *mair*, *sengawan*, *domat*, and *bhata*. *Mair* is a black soil, which retains water and moisture well, and needs no irrigation. It produces valuable crops of wheat and other grain. *Sengawan* is a whitish clay, suitable for crops of any kind. *Domat* (literally two soils) is *mair* and *sengawan* mixed, and it produces the crops of both varieties. *Bhata*, red dry soil, is the worst class, pro-

ducing only inferior crops. Tanks are seldom constructed for irrigation. Owing to the want of embankments, many miles of undulating and cultivable land lie untilled.

The forests of Rewá, which formerly contained large stores of excellent timber—teak, *sál* (Shorea robusta), *khair* (Acacia Catechu), *saj* (Terminalia tomentosa), *tendu* (Diospyros melanxylon) — suffered greatly from indiscriminate felling by sleeper contractors during the rule of the late Mahárájá. At present there is but little good timber in the State. A system of forest conservancy has been established, and considerable areas are now marked off as reserve forests. In 1883–84, 136 square miles were demarcated. There is a fair trade in lac (Coccus Lacca), and quantities of *mahuá* (flower of the Bassia latifolia), *burra* (Quercus infectoria), resin, and gums are yearly exported. The revenue derived from lac is estimated at £6000.

The Jabalpur extension of the East Indian Railway crosses the western boundary of the State, the stations of Satna and Dabhaura being in Rewá territory. The Great Deccan road passes through the State.

According to the family history kept in the Court Records, it appears that the original founder of this principality was Bilagar Deo or Biag Deo (hence the name Baghel), who, leaving his own country in Gujarát in 580 A.D., ostensibly on a religious pilgrimage, but in reality to seize whatever undefended territory he could, first made himself master of the fort of Murpha, and eventually of most of the country from Kálpi to Chandalgarh, and married the daughter of the Rájá of Pirhawán. Bilagar Deo was succeeded by his son, Kurun Deo, in 615, who added to his possessions a large portion of what at present constitutes Rewá, and called it Baghelkhand. He married the daughter of the Rájá of Mandla, and obtained in dower the famous fort of Bandogarh, to which he removed his court. The chiefship descended from father to son for many generations, with varying fortunes. In the time of Birbhan Ráo, the 19th Rájá, who succeeded in 1601, the family of Humáyún Sháh, Emperor of Delhi, being forced by Sher Sháh to flee from Delhi, found shelter in Rewá territory.

In 1618, Vikramáditya succeeded and made Rewá his capital, building the fort and town. Abdút Singh, the 27th Rájá, was only six months old when his father died; and Hardí Sah, the Bundelá chief of Panna, taking advantage of his infancy, invaded Rewá, and took possession of the capital. The young chief and his mother fled to Partábgarh, and after a time, with the assistance of the Emperor of Delhi, expelled Hardí Sah. Abdút Singh was succeeded by Ajít Singh, and he in turn by Jai Singh Deo, in 1809. It was during his rule that British influence was established in Baghelkhand, and the first formal treaty between the British Government and Rewá was made with Jai Singh Deo in 1812.

In 1812, a body of Pindári marauders invaded Mírzápur through Rewá State. The Rájá, who was believed to have abetted this enterprise, was required to accede to a treaty by which he was acknowledged as ruler of his dominions, and was brought under the protection of the British Government, to whose arbitration he bound himself to refer all disputes with neighbouring chiefs, and engaged to allow British troops to march through, or be stationed in, his territories. The Rájá, however, failed to fulfil his obligations, and when a military post was established in his territory, he attempted to starve out the detachment. Troops were sent to enforce the execution of the engagements; and in June 1813 a second treaty was made confirming the first, and defining more clearly the relations of the Rájá with the British Government.

Jai Singh Deo abdicated in favour of his son, Bishnáth Singh, who was succeeded in 1834 by his son, Raghuráj Singh. In 1847 the Mahárájá abolished *sati* throughout his dominions. For his services during the Mutiny of 1857, the tracts of Sohágpur and Amarkantak were granted to Raghuráj Singh, who also received the distinction of Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India. The Mahárájá was also granted a *sanad* of adoption and a personal salute of 19 guns. Raghuráj Singh died in 1880, and has been succeeded by his son, Bankatesh Raman Singh, during whose minority the State is under the management of the Political Agent and Superintendent of Rewá, who is assisted by a Council of 10 Sardárs, members of the ruling family.

The population of Rewá State, according to the Census of 1881, was returned at 1,305,124, namely, 654,182 males and 650,942 females. Hindus numbered 971,788; Muhammadans, 31,107; Jains, 86; Christians, 28; Sikhs, 8; aboriginal tribes, 302,107. Hindus were classed—Bráhmans, 206,173; Rájputs, 43,609; Ahírs, 61,586; Baniyás, 29,365; Kurmís, 78,764; and 'others,' 552,291. The aboriginal tribes were—Gonds, 139,626, and Kols, 162,481. The principal landholders are Bráhmans, Rájputs, Kurmís, and Gonds; the two latter are cultivators as well as proprietors. Rent is generally paid in kind, and varies from one-sixth to one-tenth of the gross produce. The revenue of the State in 1883-84 from all sources amounted to £111,258, of which £70,609 was derived from the land. The State maintained in 1883-84 a force of 371 cavalry, 564 infantry, 6 field guns, and 77 artillerymen.

The average annual rainfall at Rewá for the three years ending 1875-76 was 59 inches; the rainfall in 1883 was 29·85 inches.

Rewá.—Chief town of the State of Rewá in Baghelkhand, Central India. Lat. 24° 31′ 30″ N., long. 81° 20′ E.; 131 miles south-west of Alláhábád, and 182 north-east of Ságar. Population (1881) 22,016,

namely, 11,010 males and 11,006 females. Hindus number 17,413; Muhammadans, 4581; and 'others,' 22. Thornton states that the town is surrounded by 3 ramparts, of which the innermost encloses the palace of the Mahárájá.

Rewadanda. — Town and port in the Alíbágh Sub-division of Kolába District, Bombay Presidency; situated 6 miles south by east of Alíbágh, in lat. 18° 32′ 50″ N., and long. 72° 58′ E. Population (1881) 6908, namely, Hindus, 6072; Muhammadans, 493; Jains, 23; Christians, 28; Pársís, 2; and 'others,' 290. The town has many interesting remains of the Portuguese, whose last possession in the Konkan it was, especially the walls and fort of Korle surmounted by a tower. The harbour formed by the mouth of Kondalika river is small, but safe and deep (7 fathoms). The bar has 2 fathoms at low water of spring tides; the channel is sinuous. During the fine season steamers call almost daily, and large boats pass up to Robe, 18 miles distant. No road communication. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1881–82, £30,670 of imports, and £47,897 of exports. In 1881–82, the value of imports was £27,033, and of exports £37,833. Rewadanda is one of the five ports of the Alíbágh Customs Division. Post-office; school.

Rewá Kántha (*The banks of Rewá or Narbadá*).—Political Agency subordinate to the Government of Bombay, established 1821–26, having under its control 61 separate States, great and small. Of the 61 States, 3 pay no tribute, 5 are tributary to the British Government (3 of these pay also tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda), 1 to Chhota Udaipur, and the rest to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The States lie between 21° 23′ and 23° 33′ N. lat., and 73° 3′ and 74° 18′ E. long. Besides lands stretching about 50 miles along the south bank of the Narbadá, Rewá Kántha includes an irregular band of territory from 10 to 50 miles broad, passing north of the Narbadá to about 12 miles beyond the Mahí, and an isolated strip on the west lying chiefly along the left bank of the Mahí. Bounded on the north by the Mewár States of Dungarpur and Bánswáda; on the east by the Sub-divisions of Jhálod and Dohad of Panch Maháls District, Alí Rájpur, and other petty States of Bhopáwar Agency, and part of Khándesh District; on the south by Baroda territory and Surat District; and on the west by Broach District, Baroda State, Panch Maháls, Kaira, and Ahmadábád Districts. Extreme length from north to south, about 140 miles; breadth from east to west varying from 10 to 50 miles; area, 4792 square miles. Population (1881) 543,452. Revenue, about £160,000.

Physical Aspects.—In the outlying villages to the west along the Mahí, and in the north and south where Rewá Kántha stretches into the plains of Gujarát, the country is open and flat; but generally the Agency is hilly. Its two principal ranges are—(1) in the south, the

Rájpipla hills, the westmost spurs of the Sátpurás, forming the water-parting between the Narbadá and Tápti valleys; and (2) across the centre of the Agency, the spurs of the Vindhya range running west from the sandstone-crowned table-land of Ratanmál, and forming the water-parting between the Narbadá and the Mahí. In the 120 miles of the course of the Mahí through Rewá Kántha, the country changes from wild forest-clad hills in the east to a flat bare plain in the west. Its deep banks make the Mahí of little use for irrigation. Its stream is too shallow and its bed too rocky to allow of navigation. The Narbadá enters the Agency through a country of hill and forest with wooded or steep craggy banks. For the last 40 miles of its course, the country grows rich and open, the banks lower, the bed widens, and the stream is deep and slow enough for water-carriage. For 8 miles it is tidal.

Geology.—The Rewá Kántha rocks belong to five classes — metamorphic, quartzite sandstone, cretaceous, trap, and nummulite. The Agency has a considerable store of mineral wealth. The chief precious stones are agate and carnelians; among ornamental stones are good specimens of white, yellow, and grey marble, and red, white, grey, and nearly black granite; and among paving stones, whitish sandstone found in large slabs.

Forests. — A great part of Rewá Kántha is covered with forest. The chief trees are *mahuá* (Bassia latifolia), teak, blackwood (Dalbergia Sissoo), tamarind, mango, *ráyan* (Mimusops indica), *sádado* (Terminalia Arjuna), *beheda* (Terminalia belerica), *timbarrun* (Carissa carandas), *bili* (Ægle Marmelos), *kher* (Acacia Catechu), etc. The forest reserves are of two kinds—State reserves, or tracts in the large forests where the State only can cut; and sacred village groves, where the finest timber is found. Most of the villages have two kinds of groves — one never cut except on emergencies, and the other less sacred and generally felled at intervals of 30 years. Except for wants of the State, or when the villagers are forced to make good losses caused by some general fire or flood, the fear of the guardian spirit keeps the people from cutting in their village groves. The forests were once famous for their large stores of high-class timber. But of late years, from the stricter conservancy in the neighbouring Panch Mahals District, they have been greatly cut down, and few large trees are now left.

Fauna.—Tigers and leopards, though yearly becoming fewer, are still found in considerable number. Bears and wild hog are common. *Sámbhar*, spotted deer, and *nil-gai* are found over great part of the Agency; bison (Bos gavœus) in the extreme south-east. The painted and common sand-grouse, red spur-fowl, the pea-fowl, the painted and grey partridge, and quail are common. Common, jack, and

painted snipe, black goose, cotton, whistling, common, and blue-winged teal are some of the water-fowls. The stores of fish in the larger rivers are made little use of. So great is the influence of the higher class of Hindus, that professional fishermen can practise their calling only by stealth.

History.—Under the first Anhilwára dynasty (746–942), almost all the Rewá Kántha lands were under the government of the Bárias, that is, Kolí and Bhíl chiefs. In the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries, driven south and east by the pressure of Muhammadan invasion, chiefs of Rájput or part Rájput blood took the place of the Kolí and Bhíl leaders. The first established was the house of the Rájá of Rájpipla. In the 16th century, the Ahmadábád Sultáns brought under submission almost the whole of Rewá Kántha. In the 17th century, although a member of the Bábi family founded the State of Bálásinor, the power of the Gujarát (Guzerát) viceroys began to decline. The Maráthás soon spread their authority over the plains, and collected tribute with the help of military force.

The younger branches of the chiefs' families had from time to time been forced to leave their homes and win for themselves new States; and these, with the descendants of a few of the original chiefs, form the present landholders of the small estates of the Agency. Under the Maráthás, they plundered the country; and as the Gáekwár failed to keep order, the British had to undertake the task. In 1821, an agreement was concluded with the Gáekwár, under which the control of all the Baroda tributaries was vested in the Company. In 1825, the petty chiefs of Pándu Mewás came under British control. At the same time, the political control of Sindhia's Panch Mahíls was made over to the Company, and Báriya State was transferred from the Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. The Political Agency of Rewá Kántha was established in 1826, to take charge of these territories. The States of Lunáwára and Sunth, which had been under British control since 1819, were afterwards transferred from the Mahi Kántha Agency. In 1829, the appointment of Political Agent was abolished, and the chiefs were left very much to themselves.

In 1842, the Political Agency at Rewá Kántha was re-established, and the criminal powers of the chiefs were classified. In 1853, the State of Bálásinor was transferred from the Kaira Collector; and Sindhia handed over for a period of ten years the administration of the Godra Panch Mahíls. In 1862, the Panch Mahíls were exchanged by Sindhia for country near Gwálior, and became British territory. Two years later, the Panch Mahíls were removed from the control of the Agent, and formed into a separate charge. In 1876, the Panch Mahíls were raised to the rank of a District, the officer in charge of it having control of the Rewá Kántha States.

Of the 61 States of Rewá Kántha, one, Rájpipla, is of the first class and is the most important and the largest of all. Its chief has been granted power of life and death, and can try British subjects, but all the other chiefs are required to remit cases against such persons to the Political Agent. Five chiefs, Chhota Udaipur, Báriya, Sunth, Lunáwára, and Bálásinor, are of the second class, and have independent control within their own States. The 55 small States include Kadána and Sanjeli (both of whom pay no tribute), and three groups of Mewás States. Sankheda Mewás consists of 26 States; area, 311 square miles; population (1881) 53,214; revenue, £19,200. Pándu Mewás consists of 22 States; area, 138 square miles; population (1881) 20,312; revenue, £4700. Dorka Mewás consists of 3 States; area, 9 square miles; population (1881) 4576; revenue, £1100. Of the 61 States at the close of 1883-84, 16 were under the direct management of the Agency; the chiefs of three of these were minors.

Population. — Until 1872, the Rewá Kántha people had never been enumerated. The Census of 1872 showed a total population of 505,732; and the Census of 1881, 543,452, namely, 280,208 males and 263,244 females, occupying 109,730 houses, in 3 towns and 1101 villages. Average density of population, 113·4 persons per square mile; number of houses per square mile, 24·9; number of villages and towns per square mile, 0·23; number of inhabitants per house, 4·95. Hindus number 368,069; Muhammadans, 21,401; aboriginal tribes, 152,720; Jains, 1040; Pársís, 220; and Christians, 2.

The Hindus are sub-divided according to caste into Bráhmans, 19,537; Rájputs, 20,478; Chamárs, 4622; Darzís, 1460; Nápits, 3193; Kunbis, 30,251; Kumbhárs, 3750; Lohárs, 3121; Mhárs, 15,102; Sutárs, 2396; other Hindus, 264,159. According to sect, the Muhammadans are returned as follows:—Sunnís 19,882, and Shiás 1519.

Of the total population, persons following agricultural occupations or having interest in land number 240,058; and artisans, 24,680. Of the remaining 278,714 inhabitants, 12,623 carry on other miscellaneous callings, and 266,091 are returned as without occupation; this number represented children under age and females who perform no regular work other than household.

The Bhils are found in large numbers, especially in the south-east of Rewá Kántha. The Rewá Kántha Bhíl is generally of middle size, strong-limbed, muscular, and wonderfully active and dirty. As regards dress, the Bhils and Kolís are divided into two classes—*potadiás* or waist-cloth wearers, and *langotiás* or loin-cloth wearers. The former, besides a waist-cloth, wear a short coat, and a turban generally white, but sometimes red. A few, instead of the waist-cloth, wear short drawers reaching to their knees. A Bhíl woman usually wears a coarse

sári, a large petticoat, and a cheap bodice. Most of the Bhíls are cultivators, but their scanty crops do not suffice to support them for more than three or four months. During the rest of the year they depend on the sale of forest produce, timber, *mahuá* flower, honey, wax, and *lac*. The Bhíls are truthful, thriftless, superstitious, and fond of drink. They are wanting in forethought. As a rule, they live from hand to mouth, and are deeply indebted to the village trader, seldom receiving the full value of their labour and produce. Such is the Bhíl's love of spirits, that their religious and social rites almost always end in a great debauch.

A Bhíl's religion consists largely of a belief in charms. They worship female deities, known as *mátás*, represented by symbols, rather than images, by wooden posts, toy horses, earthen pots, wicker baskets, and winnowing fans. They believe in witches and in the evil eye. They have their wise men called *barwás*, exorcists, whose office is hereditary, and who are in special request during an epidemic.

The Bhíls have peculiar marriage customs. Sometimes the young couple arrange matters unknown to their parents. They disappear, and after hiding for some days in the forest, come back and declare themselves man and wife. The parents, as a rule, accept the situation; and after arranging the expenses (£6 to £8), the marriage is celebrated with the usual forms. If the matter is not quietly settled, a feud runs on between the families. Sometimes a woman boldly walks into the house of the man she wishes to marry, and declares that he is her husband. Should he be willing, she sends for the father, and giving £6 to £8, asks his consent. If the man is unwilling, he is in no way forced to make the woman his wife. If a Bhíl wishes to marry, and is unable to pay the wedding expenses, he contracts to serve his future father-in-law as a serf for a certain number of years, at the end of which he is entitled to the girl's hand, and to have all marriage expenses paid for him. During this period of servitude, he and the girl live as man and wife. Polygamy is allowed. Divorce is, as a rule, easily granted.

THE KOLIS are divided into 21 tribes, belonging to two great subdivisions, Talabda and Khant, so distinct that marriages between them are forbidden. The Ráthwa Kolís, originally settlers from Ráth in Alí Rájpur of Bhopáwar Agency, Central India, are found chiefly in the States of Báriya and Chhota Udaipur. They live in the forests and do not settle long in one place, moving from one tract to another, growing crops on clearing in the jungle. In their habits and ways of living they resemble the Bhíls. The Talabda Kolís, who think themselves superior to the other class, do not eat beef nor the flesh of any animal that has died a natural death. Most of the Kolís are cultivators, but idle and unskilful. Nearly as thriftless as the Bhíls, they are deeply indebted to the village trader, who, leaving them grain

enough for food, seed, and rent, takes the rest. They are cleanly in their habits, and not so simple as the Bhíls. Both tribes are inveterate thieves; but the Kolís lay their plans with much more method, boldness, and cunning than the Bhíls. They lie freely. The Kolís are less superstitious, and pay more respect to ceremonial observances. They worship all the Hindu gods, but chiefly Indra and Hátmal. They respect Bráhmans, and employ them to conduct their religious ceremonies.

Polygamy is allowed among the Kolís. When a Kolí wishes to get his son married, he generally, although the marriage may have been arranged long before, goes through the form of starting off to find a bride. After he has chosen a bride, and made all the preliminary arrangements, he is asked to dine with her father. During the dinner, the women of the bride's family strew grains of corn on the threshold, and as the boy's father is leaving the house, they rush at him as if to beat him, and he, making for the door, slips and falls. The boy's father's fall on the threshold of the girl's house is so important an omen that without it no marriage could prosper. Among Kolís, when a man dies leaving a widow, it is usual for his younger brother to marry her. But if she wishes to marry some one else, she can do so if her future husband pays back to the younger brother her deceased husband's marriage expenses. The Kolís burn their dead.

Trade.—The trade of Rewá Kántha resembles in many respects that of the Panch Mahále. Both have a through traffic between Gujarát and Central India, and a local trade west with Gujarát and east with Rájputána, Central India, and Khándesh. While the opening of the railway through Gujarát has increased the local trade westwards, the through trade has dwindled, the old direct routes with their rough roads and heavy dues failing to compete with the easy railway journey by Bombay and Khándesh to Central India.

Administration.—Civil courts have only lately been introduced into Rewá Kántha. Disputes were formerly settled by arbitration, and money-lenders were allowed to recover their outstanding debts as they best could. As regards criminal justice, the Rewá Kántha authorities consist of *thánádárs*, with second and third class magisterial powers in the estates of the petty Mewás chiefs; the chiefs of Kadána, Sanjeli, Bhádarwa, Umeta, Bária, Bálásinor, and Rájpipla; the Assistant Political Agent, and the Political Agent. No regular police is provided for the Mewás States, and the work is performed by the troopers of the Gáekwár's Contingent, who are stationed at the principal places. They carry the post, convey prisoners, and do miscellaneous work. The larger States maintain a police force of their own. Advantage was taken of several of the States being under management during the minority of their chiefs, to establish a system of federal police. But

the system had to be given up as each chief succeeded to his inheritance. In 1883-84, the strength of the police employed by the large States was 1023, of whom 116 were mounted. In the 27 prisons 1999 prisoners were confined. The number of schools in 1883-84 was 71 for boys, with 5278 pupils; and 5 for girls, with 222 scholars. There are four libraries in the States of the Agency, and a printing press at Nándod for State purposes only. The average daily attendance at the 7 dispensaries was 387 in 1883-84.

Rewári.—North-western *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; consisting of an outlying hilly tract, almost separated from the remainder of the District by native territory. The soil is naturally sandy; but the industry of the Ahír inhabitants, and the copious well-irrigation, have turned it into a singularly prosperous country. Numerous streams flow through it from the Jaipur hills, the principal of which are the Sáhibi and the Hánsaotí. Area, 426 square miles; towns and villages, 285; number of houses, 23,558, namely, occupied 16,211, and unoccupied 7347. Total population (1881) 142,555, namely, males 75,092, and females 67,463; average density, 334 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 123,525; Muhammadans, 18,007; Jains, 985; Sikhs, 18; and Christians, 20. Of the 285 towns and villages, 215 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 44 from five hundred to a thousand; and 25 from one to five thousand inhabitants. The only place with a population exceeding five thousand is REWARI town (23,972). The average annual area under crops for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 is returned at 234¼ square miles, or 149,958 acres, the principal crops being—*bájra*, 69,394 acres; *moth*, 53,429 acres; barley, 31,058 acres; *joár*, 12,817 acres; wheat, 7622 acres; and vegetables, 3813 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £26,182. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, a *munsif*, and an honorary magistrate, who preside over 2 civil and 2 revenue courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 127 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 306.

Rewári.—Town and municipality in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Rewári *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 28° 12′ N., long. 70° 40′ E., on the Delhi and Jaipur road, 32 miles south-east of Gurgáon town, at the junction of the Rewári-Firozpur and Rájputána-Málwá lines of railway. Rewári is an ancient town, but owes its present commercial importance to British rule. The débris of an earlier city cover a site known as Budhi Rewári, east of the modern walls. Local tradition attributes its foundation to Rájá Karm Pál, of unknown date. Even the present town has considerable antiquity, having been founded about 1000 A.D. by Rájá Reo, who named it after his daughter Rewáti. The native Rájás seem to have maintained a partial independence under the

Mughal Empire, renting their *parganá* at a fixed revenue. They also built the fort of Gokalgarh, near the town, now in ruins, but exhibiting marks of great strength. They coined their own money, one of the most cherished prerogatives of independent sovereignty in India, and their currency bore the name of Gokal Sikka.

On the collapse of the Mughal Empire, Rewári fell first to the Maráthás and afterwards to the Ját Rájás of Bhartpur, who retained it till the cession of the Delhi territory in 1803. In 1805, the *parganá* was brought under direct British rule, and the town became for some time the head-quarters of a District. A military cantonment was established at Bharáwas near the civil station till 1816, when the troops were transferred to Nasírábád, and the civil head-quarters removed to Gurgáon town. The security of British rule attracted large numbers of traders from the neighbouring Native States, for which Rewári formed a central emporium. The Rewári estate was taken from the chief of Bhartpur in 1805, and made over in farm to Tej Singh, whose descendants held this position till the Mutiny, although much impoverished by family quarrels, litigation, and extravagance. In 1857, Ráo Tula Rám, grandson of Tej Singh, represented the family; and he, on the outbreak of the disturbances, assumed the government of Rewári, collected revenue, cast guns, and raised a force with which he kept the turbulent Meos in check, without, however, casting in his lot with the British or actually joining the rebels. Finally, on the advance of a British force from Delhi, he and his cousin Gopál Deo fled on receiving a summons to the camp. Both died as fugitives, and the estate was confiscated.

Rewári town lies low, and in 1873 was partially inundated by an overflow from the Sáhibi river, whose ordinary course is seven miles from the town; but it is well drained, and secure from all but very unusual floods. Population (1881) 23,972, namely, males 11,824, and females 12,148. Hindus number 14,687; Muhammadans, 8499; Jains, 763; Sikhs, 10; and Christians, 13. Number of houses, 2806. Municipal income (1883–84), £3764, or an average of 3s. 2d. per head. The town is traversed from east to west by a broad and handsome street of shops constructed in 1864; and from north to south by several good roads, terminating on each side with a fine gateway. The houses and shops along the main streets are all of stone or brick, and many of them large, substantial, and of some architectural pretensions; outside the main streets, the thoroughfares are narrow and crooked, and the houses for the most part mud hovels. The chief streets and roads are well paved, lighted, and flanked with good surface drains; but the sanitary and conservancy arrangements in the bye-streets and lanes is still defective, although improvements are being rapidly carried on out of surplus municipal income. A circular drive, well

metalled, and shaded with an avenue of trees, surrounds the town. To the south-west is a handsome tank built by Ráo Tej Singh, surrounded by temples, and bathing-places for both men and women, with stone staircases. Adjoining the tank, a large garden has been laid out as a public recreation ground. Another picturesque tank, surrounded by handsome mausoleums, is situated near the railway station. The principal buildings are the Government courts and offices, a handsome town hall, police station, post-office, large Government school, *sarái* or native inn, and a dispensary.

The brass and pewter vessels of Rewári are celebrated. Together with fine turbans, they form the principal manufacture of the town. Rewári, indeed, was formerly a depôt for supplying a great part of Rájputána. Since the opening of through communication by rail, Rewári no longer forms a regular halting-place between Delhi and the Native States, and the demand for its brass-ware has somewhat fallen off; but, on the other hand, an enormous trade in grain has from the same cause sprung up with distant parts of India. Situated as the town is, at the junction of two lines of railway, it cannot fail to increase steadily in commercial importance. Sugar is brought from Rohtak, the Doáb, and parts of Oudh, and exported westwards; while wheat, barley, and gram are collected from all the neighbouring country, and exported to Calcutta, Bombay, and Gujrát, and much barley is purchased for the breweries of Masuri and Naini Tál. Iron is imported in large quantities from Alwar for use in the manufactures of the town; and iron, with salt, forms the return trade to the North-Western Provinces. There are several banking and commercial firms of considerable importance, whose dealings extend to Bombay, Calcutta, the Central Provinces, and the north and west Punjab.

Rewás. — Port in the Alíbágh Sub-division of Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 47′ 20″ N., long. 72° 58′ 30″ E.; 10 miles north-east of Alíbágh. Population (1881) 919, occupying 149 houses. Chiefly fishermen, who live in low dirty huts. The houses of the cultivators are better built and clean. Average annual value of trade for the four years ending 1881–82, £8488—namely, imports, £2660, and exports, £5828. In 1881–82 the value of imports was £2060, and of exports, £412. Rewás is one of the five ports of the Alíbágh Customs Division. Steamers from Bombay call daily at all states of the tide. Road communication with Alíbágh.

Riah.—*Tahsíl* in Siálkot District, Punjab.—*See* RAYA.

Rian.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána.—*See* RAYAN.

Riási.—Fort and town in the Jamu Division of Kashmír State, Northern India. Lat. 33° 5′ N., long. 74° 52′ E.; lies on the left bank of the Chenáb (Chináb), on the last slopes of the southernmost Himálayan

range. Thornton states that the fort crowns a conical rock, south of the town, and consists of a rectangular enclosure, whose lofty stone walls rose sheer from the steeply escarped sides of the hills, with a bomb-proof tower at each angle. Two large tanks supply the garrison with water. A deep ravine separates the fort from a sandstone eminence of equal height, about a mile distant.

Ridhpur.—Town in Amraoti District, Berar.—*See* RITPUR.

Rikheswar.—Cantonment in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* LOHAGHAT.

Rintimbur.—Fort in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána.—*See* RANTHAMBHOR.

Riotí.—Town in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* REOTI.

Riotípur. — Town in Zamániá *tahsíl*, Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* REOTIPUR.

Rípu.—One of the Dwárs or submontane tracts forming the Eastern Dwárs of Goálpárá District, Assam. Area, 242 square miles. Population (1881) 3040; forest area (reserved), 65·05 square miles; area under cultivation, 4·62 square miles. In 1870 the land was settled with the cultivators direct for a term of seven years. Since 1877 the settlement has been made on yearly leases, as in the rest of Assam.

Rishikund.—Hot spring in Monghyr District, Bengal. It has been made a place of worship; and a reservoir has been built to collect the water into one pool, which is about 140 feet square, and on the side most remote from the sources, overgown with aquatic plants. The bottom of the pool is partly sandy, partly rocky; and the air-bubbles rise from the surface over a space of about 30 feet wide and 140 feet long. Where the air-bubbles issue from among sand, they form a small cavity like a crater. When Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton visited this spring he found, in the month of April, that the thermometer in the air stood at 72° F.; in the water where it issued from the crevice of a rock, it rose to 110°; and in one of the craters, to 114°. A fair is held at Rishikund once in three years. It is of no great importance, there being seldom more than 2000 people present.

Risod.—Chief town of a *parganá* in Basím *táluk*, Basím District, Berar; originally known as *Rishi-wut-kshetr*, or 'The place of all the Rishis.' Lat. 19° 58′ 30″ N., long. 76° 51′ E. Population (1867) 4716; not returned separately in the Census of 1881. Place of some commercial activity. In 1858–59, a plundering party of Rohillás, being brought to bay by a detachment of the Haidarábád (Hyderábád) Contingent at the walled village of Chichamba, near Risod, resisted an infantry attack. This was the last fight of the kind in Berár. Charitable dispensary; first class vernacular school; police station. Large irrigation tank.

Ritpur.—Town in Morsi *táluk*, Amraoti District, Berár; 26 miles north of Amraoti town. Lat. 21° 14′ N., long. 77° 52′ E. Population (1881) 2538. Once a place of importance, having been the *tankha jágír* of Salábat Khán. The stone wall which surrounded the town fifty years ago has almost entirely disappeared. It is said to have then had 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom deserted it owing to the oppression of Bisenchand, *tálukdár* in the time of Námdár Khán. The principal buildings of interest are Rámchandra's temple, the Mánbháu building called Ráj Math, and the Government school. Good water is scarce at Ritpur, the people obtaining their drinking supply from Lálá's well.

Ritpur is the chief seat of the sect known as Mánbháu, founded by Kishen Bhát at PAITHAN (Nizám's Dominions). Kishen Bhát, the spiritual adviser of a Rájá who ruled at Paithan about the middle of the fourteenth century, was made an outcaste on account of his marriage with a low-born woman (a Mháng). The name of Mháng-bháu, which has been corrupted to the present Mánbháu, and which he gave to his children, is derived from their mixed parentage. He promulgated a religious system which he disseminated far and wide by means of his sons. His doctrines repudiated a multiplicity of gods; and it appears probable that the hatred and contempt he endured arose from his endeavours to restore the monotheistic principle of Bráhmanism as taught in the Vedas. He inculcated the exclusive worship of Krishna, and taught his disciples to eat with none but the initiated, and to break off all former ties of caste and religion. The head of the sect is a Mahant, and with him are associated a number of priests. Its members are professed celibates, but this rule is by no means rigidly observed. Both men and women shave all hair from the head, and wear a black waistcloth, forming a kind of skirt, to show that, having devoted themselves to religion, they in their worldly conduct no longer recognise any distinction as to sex. They bury their dead. Kishen Bhát, the founder of this sect, is said to have obtained a magic cap, by wearing which he assumed the likeness of Krishna. This cap was at last forcibly taken from him and burnt.

The Census Report of 1881 returned 4111 Mánbháus in Berar, namely, 2193 males and 1918 females. Of the males 451 were of no occupation, and 1251 were beggars. Of the females 44·6 per cent. followed no specified occupation, and 38·9 per cent. were beggars. More than one-fifth of the male sex, and less than one-sixth of the female sex, were productively employed. Of these the great majority were engaged in agriculture. Eleven men and three women were *sahukars*; six men were carpenters; and 32 women were cotton-spinners, ginners, and thread-makers.

Riwari.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* REWARI.

Robertsganj.—Southern *tahsíl* of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of the plateau north of the Káimur range, the Son (Soane) valley, the belt of hilly jungle which bounds the Son valley to the south, together with the Singrauli plain beyond. This tract comprises the most varied and picturesque scenery in the District. Area, 2632 square miles, of which 435 square miles are cultivated. Population (1872) 173,540; (1881) 226,318, namely, males 113,975, and females 112,343. Increase of population since 1872, 52,778, or 30·4 per cent. in nine years. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 217,892; Muhammadans, 8323; Christians, 88; and 'others,' 15. Of 1224 villages, 1146 contain a population of less than five hundred; 64 between five hundred and a thousand; and 14 between one and three thousand. No place has a population exceeding three thousand. Total area in 1881 paying Government land revenue or quit-rent, 885·3 square miles, of which 276·8 square miles were cultivated, 167 square miles cultivable, and 441·5 square miles uncultivable waste. Total Government land revenue, £6355, or, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £6853. Rental paid by cultivators, £34,302. In 1884, the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 9; strength of regular police, 84 men.

Robertsganj.—Village in Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Robertsganj *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 24° 41′ 24″ N., and long. 83° 6′ 33″, about 50 miles south-east of Mírzápur town. Population (1881) 1161. The village and *tahsíl* are named after Mr. W. Roberts, Collector of Mirzápur in 1846, and settlement officer of the District. The place is increasing in importance; and the improvement of the road connecting it with Ahraura station on the East Indian Railway is likely to benefit Robertsganj at the expense of other local trade centres farther north.

Roha.—Sub-division of Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 200 square miles. Population (1872) 41,997; (1881) 44,835, namely, 22,525 males and 22,310 females, occupying 8300 houses, in 1 town and 132 villages. Hindus number 42,302; Muhammadans, 1869; and 'others,' 664. Roha is for the most part hilly; and contains the rich valley of the Kundalika river. The rice lands are well watered during the rainy season, but in the cold and hot months the supply of drinking water is defective. In the hill slopes and uplands, the soil is a mixture of earth and broken trap. In the level parts the soil varies from reddish to yellow or black. During the 22 years ending 1881 the rainfall averaged 115·8 inches. The Sub-division contains altogether 61,666 acres of cultivable land, 12,007 acres of uncultivable land, 29,469 acres of forest reserves, and 402 acres under grass. Of the Government cultivable land (60,943 acres), 41,771 acres were

in 1881–82 under actual cultivation, of which 955 acres were twice cropped. Principal crops—cereals and millets, 39,233 acres; pulses, 3179 acres; oil-seeds, 264 acres; fibres, 13 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 37 acres. The survey rates were fixed in 1863 for 30 years. In 1881–82, 6343 holdings were recorded with an average area of 8½ acres, and an average rental of £1, 13s. In 1883, Roha Sub-division contained—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 28 men. Land revenue, £10,719.

Roha (known as *Roha Ashtami*).—Chief town of Roha Sub-division, Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Situated on the left bank of the Kundalika river, 24 miles from its mouth. Lat. 18° 25′ 5″ N., long. 73° 9′ 25″ E. Population (1881) 4894. Hindus numbered 3575; Muhammadans, 1061; Jains, 28; Christians, 9; Pársís, 4; and 'others,' 217. Roha is a great rice market for supplying Bombay city. Sea-customs office, school, post-office, and reading-room. The municipality, founded in 1865, had in 1883–84 an income of £566; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3¼d. per head. The village of Ashtami, on the opposite bank of the river, is included within the municipal limits of Roha. In 1673, Oxenden called it Esthemy.

Rohar.—Chief seaport of Anjár division, Cutch, Bombay Presidency. Situated about 12 miles east of Anjár town. In 1818 the port was able to receive vessels of 70 tons, and had a hard sandy beach over which carts could pass close to the sea. Now only small boats do an insignificant coasting trade. A petty fort falling into decay. The water-supply has been improved by building a new reservoir.

Rohilkhand.—Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 35′ and 29° 58′ N. lat., and between 78° 2′ and 80° 28′ E. long. The Division, which covers an area of 10,883 square miles, includes the six Districts of BIJNAUR (Bijnor), MORADABAD, BUDAON, BAREILLY (Bareli), PILIBHIT, and SHAHJAHANPUR, all of which see separately. Bounded on the north by Garhwál and Taráí Districts; on the east by Kheri and Etah Districts; on the south by Hardoi and Farukhábád; and on the west by Alígarh, Bulandshahr, Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, and Sahâranpur Districts.

The population of Rohilkhand Division was returned by the Census of 1872 at 5,252,325. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a total of 5,122,557, showing a decrease of 129,768, or 2·5 per cent., in nine years. This decrease is attributable to the famine caused by drought in 1877–78, and to severe outbreaks of epidemic fever in 1878–79. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of Division, 10,883 square miles, with 46 towns and 11,281 villages; number of houses, 639,604. Total population, 5,122,557, namely, males 2,728,761, and females 2,393,796; pro-

portion of males, 53·2 per cent. Average density of population, 470·6 persons per square mile, varying from 329·2 per square mile in Pilibhít, to 638·6 per square mile in Bareilly District. Average number of persons per town or village, 452; number of towns or villages per square mile, 1·04; houses per square mile, 58·8; inmates per house, 8·0. Classified according to sex and age, the Census shows—under 15 years of age, males 1,048,769, and females 877,953; total children, 1,926,722, or 37·6 per cent. of the total population: 15 years and upwards, males 1,679,992, and females 1,515,843; total children, 3,195,835, or 62·4 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, Hindus number 3,921,989, or 76·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 1,192,263, or 23·2 per cent.; Christians, 6304; Jains, 1456; Sikhs, 508; Buddhists, 15; Pársís, 21; and Brahmo, 1. Of the higher classes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 269,519; Rájputs, 221,096; Bháts, 7177; Baniyás, 132,248; and Káyasths, 57,479. Of the lower or Súdra castes, the most important (numerically) are the following:—Chamár, 616,724; Kurmí, 400,488; Kachhi, 320,059; Ahar, 231,657; Kahár, 165,328; Játs, 121,422; Gadária, 104,999; Ahír, 91,460; Bhangí, 83,340; Barhai, 82,078; Málí, 72,573; Kumbhár, 68,948; Nai, 67,372; Dhobí, 62,001; Telí, 61,155; Koerí, 58,601; Lodhí, 58,368; Bhurjí, 39,373; Gújar, 36,086; Pásí, 34,103; Sonár, 30,201; Lohár, 26,346; Tága, 21,989; Dhanuk, 20,372; Gosáin, 17,362; Kalwár, 12,073; and Káthik, 11,186. The Muhammadan population, according to sect, consists of—Sunnís, 1,773,141; Shiás, 18,942; Wahábís, 7; and unspecified, 173. Among the Muhammadan population are included the descendants of converted Rájputs, 6480; Mewátís, 8987; Tágás, 7002; Játs, 1042; and Gújars, 348. The Christian population consists of—Europeans, 2953; Eurasians, 252; Armenian, 1; and Natives of India, 3098.

Town and Rural Population.—Rohilkhand Division contains 18 towns with a population exceeding ten thousand inhabitants, namely, Bareilly (Bareli), 113,417; Sháhjahánpur, 74,830; Moradábád, 67,387; Amroha, 36,145; Budáon, 33,680; Pilibhít, 29,721; Chandausí, 27,521; Sambhal, 21,373; Nagína, 20,503; Najíbábád, 17,750; Tilhar, 15,351; Bijnaur, 15,147; Sherkot, 15,087; Sahsawán, 14,605; Aonlá, 13,018; Kiratpur, 12,728; Sarái Tarni, 11,586; and Chandpur, 11,182. Besides the foregoing there are also 28 minor towns, with an aggregate of 180,965 inhabitants, bringing up the total urban population to 731,996, or 14·2 per cent. of the population of the Division. The 19 municipal towns contain an aggregate population of 538,361. Total municipal income (1883-84), £38,943, of which £32,959 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head of the municipal population. Of the 11,327 towns and villages, 4226 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 4369 between

two and five hundred; 1988 between five hundred and a thousand; 560 between one and two thousand; 96 between two and three thousand; 43 between three and five thousand; 27 between five and ten thousand; 5 between ten and fifteen thousand; 4 between fifteen and twenty thousand; 6 between twenty and fifty thousand; and 3 upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the male population are thus returned:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 45,307; (2) domestic class, 12,153; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, and carriers, 49,276; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 1,277,499; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including artisans, 315,178; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising male children and general labourers, 1,029,348.

Agriculture.—According to the North-Western Provinces Administration Report for 1883–84, out of a total assessed area of 10,753 square miles, or 6,882,398 acres, 4,439,171 acres were under cultivation in that year; 1,753,822 acres were returned as grazing or cultivable land; and 689,405 acres as uncultivable waste. Of the cultivated area, 782,249 acres were artificially irrigated, namely, 74,677 acres from Government works, and 707,572 acres by private individuals, from wells, tanks, etc. Wheat forms the great food crop of the *rabí* or spring harvest, being grown on 1,033,088 acres in 1883–84, besides being mixed with barley and gram on 297,858 acres; barley and gram, either separate or mixed, occupy 566,605. For the *kharíf* or autumn harvest, rice occupies 714,670 acres; Indian corn, 155,522 acres; millets, such as *bájra*, *joár*, and *arhar*, 759,035 acres; pulses, 283,921. Of non-food crops, sugar-cane occupies 213,646 acres; cotton, 212,269 acres; opium, 19,546 acres; oil-seeds, 18,413 acres; indigo, 15,445 acres; and tobacco, 5309 acres.

The total male agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 1,265,800, made up as follows:—Landholders, 53,339; tenant cultivators, 1,025,127; agricultural labourers, 174,074; estate officers, 13,260. Number of cultivated acres to each male agriculturist, 3·48. The population entirely dependent on the soil, however, numbered 3,521,739, or 68·75 per cent. of the entire population of the Division. Total amount of Government land revenue assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £821,958, or an average of 3s. 11¼d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £1,481,947, or an average of 6s. 8⅞d. per cultivated acre.

Administration.—The gross revenue of Rohilkhand Division in 1883–84 was £980,683, of which the principal items were—land revenue, £695,182; stamps, £80,143; excise, £69,191; provincial rates, £88,033; assessed taxes, £15,979; registration, £5708. The land-tax is derived from 22,505 estates, paying an average Government assessment of £30, 16s. each. Protection to person and property is

afforded by 84 civil and revenue and 137 criminal courts; with a regular police force of 4288 officers and men, stationed in 101 police circles (*thánás*); besides a village watch or rural police of 11,250 *chaukídárs*. There are altogether 8 jails and lock-ups, with an average daily prison population in 1883 of 2004, of whom 1825 were convicts.

Means of communication are afforded by 163 miles of the Oudh and Rohilkhand, and the Kumáon and Rohilkhand Railways; and by 2595 miles of metalled and unmetalled roads.

There are 858 Government and aided schools in the Division, attended in 1883–84 by 28,545 pupils. This is exclusive of uninspected indigenous village schools. The Census of 1881 returned 35,091 boys and 1549 girls as under instruction; besides 90,157 males and 1965 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical relief is furnished by 30 hospitals and dispensaries, attended in 1883–84 by 7444 in-door and 278,929 out-door patients. Total number of deaths registered in 1883–84, 157,662, or a death-rate of 30·7 per thousand.

Rohisa. — Village in Junágarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated 8 miles to the east of Una, and about half a mile from the sea-shore. Population (1881) 1658. When a Pálitána chief ascends his *gadi*, a stone is brought from Rohisa as a token that one of his ancestors conquered the place. About 3 miles to the north of Rohisa is the Chitrásar lake, excavated and built round.

Rohisála.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate tribute-payers. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 354. Estimated revenue, £310; tribute of £10, 6s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rohna.—Town in Arví *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 32′ 30″ N., long. 78° 25′ E.; 23 miles west by north of Wardhá town. Population (1881) 2172, chiefly cultivators. Hindus number 1833; Jains, 83; Muhammadans, 70; and non-Hindu aborigines, 186. The stream by the town has been embanked to avert floods, and a well-attended market is held every Tuesday in its dry bed and on the bank. A large fair also takes place yearly at the end of January. The fort was built about a century ago by Krishnají Sindhia, who held the town rent-free from the Haidarábád and Bhonsla Governments, in consideration of maintaining 200 horsemen. Rohna has a village school, and in the neighbourhood are gardens of opium, sugar-cane, and spices.

Rohri (or, as written by the natives, *Lohri*).—Sub-division of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 27° 7′ and 28° 32′ N. lat., and between 68° 52′ and 70° 15′ E. long. Area, including a part of Kohistán, 5410 square miles. Population (1881) 209,114. Bounded on the north and west by the Indus, on the north-east and

east by the States of Baháwalpur and Jaisalmír (Jeysulmere), and on the south by Khairpur. Head-quarters at Mírpur.

Physical Aspects.—The Sub-division consists mainly of a desert known as the Registăn, constituting a portion of the vast plain of Shikárpur. It is broken by sandhills, which are often bold in outline, and fairly wooded. A small limestone range in the south-west of the Sub-division runs from near Rohri town due north and south into Khairpur. The Indus is supposed to have once flowed past these hills near the ancient town of Aror, and to have been diverted into its present channel through the Bakhar Hills by some great natural convulsion. The Ren, said to be a former bed of the main stream of the Indus, is in the Registán. The principal canals in Rohri are—the new supply channel for the EASTERN NARA, 13 miles long and 156 feet wide at its mouth, with strong sluice-gates; the Eastern Nárá in its course towards the south is cut up into numerous small streams, and abounds in quagmires and quicksands: the Lúndi, 16 miles long; Aror, 16 miles; Dahr, 26 miles; Masú, 32 miles; Korai, 23 miles; Maháro, 37 miles; Dengro, 16 miles. There are 57 *zamíndári* canals, offshoots of the Government works. The *dandhs* are—the Dahri, 20 miles long; the Garwar, 10 miles; the Kadirpur, 12 miles; the Changhan, 20 miles. The forests of Rohri cover an area of 137 square miles; the most important trees are the *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), *ním* (Melia Azadirachta), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), *siras* (Dalbergia latifolia), *tali* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *bahan* (Populus euphratica), and *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera). The bush jungle consists for the most part of tamarisk. Game is abundant.

Population.—The total population of Rohri Sub-division in 1872 was returned at 217,515, of whom 176,789 were Muhammadans, 37,917 Hindus, 1853 Bhíls, 134 Sikhs, and 822 'others.' In 1881 it was returned, including a part of Kohistán, at 209,114, namely, 111,799 males and 97,315 females; occupying 41,167 houses, in 3 towns and 344 villages. Hindus numbered 27,409; Muhammadans, 167,915; Sikhs, 8888; Christians, 109; Pársís, 1; and aboriginal tribes, 4792. Average density of population, 38·6 persons per square mile. The inhabitants of the Registán are a strong, active, and temperate race. The chief towns are ROHRI, GHOTKI, and MIRPUR. Eight fairs are held in the Sub-division, 5 in the Rohri, and 3 in the Ghotki *táluk*, with an attendance varying from 1000 to 3000 people. The towns of Rohri, Ghotki, Mírpur, Ubauro, and Pano Akil contain travellers' bungalows. The principal antiquities are the ruined town and fort of AROR, and the old stronghold of Mathelo, which is situated on rising ground about 45 miles north-east of Rohri town, and is said to have been founded by a Rájput about 1400 years ago. About 2½ miles from Rohri are the ruins of an ancient town called Hakrah, built on the extremity of a

rocky hill, which appears to have been gradually covered by the mud from the flood-waters of the Indus, that even now flow over the spot During the construction of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, the ruins of the old Hindu city of Veujnot were discovered. The ruins are about 2 miles from the village and railway station of Reti, on the banks of the Ren, which is supposed to have been formerly the main channel of the Indus.

Agriculture.—Two crops are raised in Rohri, viz.—the *kharíf*, sown between March and July, and reaped between July and December, which includes cotton, *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), indigo, rice, oil-seeds, vegetables, etc.; and the *rabí*, sown between November and March, and reaped in March and April, comprising wheat, gram, *dhaniya* (coriander), tobacco, wheat, rice, and barley. *Joár* and *bájra* form the staple articles of food. Of the total area, only 144,832 acres are under cultivation. Fruits and vegetables are extensively grown. Irrigation is carried on by means of canals, which have already been enumerated. The floods of the Indus, or *léts*, as they are called, are also a source of fertility; but when excessive, they cause great destruction to land and crops. Protective embankments have been erected in several villages. The fiscal settlement of the Sub-division was begun in 1856–57, but not completed till 1871–72. The revised settlement was introduced into the Rohri *táluk* in 1881–82 for ten years, while the original settlement is still current in the other *táluks* of the Sub-division. The average rate per acre assessed on cultivable land is Rs. 3. 10. (7s. 3d.) in Rohri *táluk;* Rs. 1. 12. (3s. 6d.) in Mírpur *táluk;* Rs. 2. 10. (5s. 3d.) in Ghotki *táluk;* and Rs. 2. 4. (4s. 6d.) in Ubauro. The principal tenure is the *maurúsi*, under which the tenants possess a right of occupancy. The *zamíndári* system also prevails to some extent. Land is held in *jágír* in every *táluk*, but the largest area is found in that of Rohri, viz. 31,000 acres. In connection with the *jágírs* must be mentioned the Sayyids of Bakhar and Rohri, who have held lands in gift in this Sub-division from about 1290 A.D. Additional grants were made to them in 1712, by Jahándar Sháh. The conditions on which the Sayyids held their territory seem to have been, (1) to pray for their imperial masters, and (2) to guard the country from marauders. The privileges of the Sayyids were confirmed by the Kalhora sovereigns, but Mír Sohráb Khán Talpur commuted their land assessments and remissions for a fourth share of the revenue alienated to the grantees.

Manufactures, etc.—Pottery, coarse cloth, and lime are the chief manufactures of the Sub-division. The annual quantity of lime made is estimated at 25,000 *maunds*, or about 900 tons. The towns of Ghotki and Khairpur Dharki are noted for their manufacture of pipe-bowls, snuff-boxes, scissors, and cooking-pots. The most important exports

from Rohri are grain, fuller's earth, lime, oil, wool, fruits, silk cloth, and indigo. The imports are wheat, sugar, tobacco, *ghí*, metals, cotton cloth, salt, and shoes. The Sub-division also carries on a considerable transit trade in grain, sugar, molasses, wool, wine, iron bars and pots, and cotton. The total length of roads is 400 miles. The main trunk road is that which connects Haidarábád with Múltán. There are 25 ferries in Rohri Sub-division, of which 22 are on the Indus and 3 on the Nárá. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi (now the North-Western State) Railway traverses the Sub-division, with nine stations—Rohri, Sangi, Pano Akil, Mahaser, Ghotki, Sirhad, Mírpur, Khairpur Dharki, and Rehti.

Revenue.—The imperial revenue in 1873-74 amounted to £37,966; and in 1881-82 to £35,864, of which £33,250 was derived from the land-tax, £1171 from excise, £1443 from stamps, and £59 from fines and fees. The local revenue was £3710, derived from cesses on land and *sayer* revenue, fisheries, cattle pound, and ferry funds. The gross revenue was therefore £39,574. There is a special civil officer for the Sub-division, and a subordinate judge, who holds his court at Ghotki. The administration is carried on by an Assistant Collector with full magisterial powers. The total number of police is 248 men, or 1 to every 843 of the population. In 1881-82 there were 22 Government schools, with 1147 pupils, including one school for girls at Rohri town. The Sub-division contains three municipalities, ROHRI, UBAURO, and GHOTKI; their aggregate receipts in 1883-84 amounted to £1828; the incidence of taxation per head of population varied from 8d. to 2s. 6d.

Climate.—The transition from the hot to the cold season is very sudden in Rohri. The average rainfall registered during twenty years ending 1881 was 5·6 inches. The prevalent diseases are fevers, ague, rheumatism, and dysentery.

Rohri.—*Táluk* of Rohri Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1550 square miles. Including a portion (1135 square miles) of Kohistán, the Census Report of 1881 returned the population at 68,582, namely, 36,331 males and 32,251 females; occupying 14,623 houses, in 1 town and 66 villages. Hindus number 9753; Muhammadans, 51,643; Sikhs, 6393; aboriginal tribes, 723; Christians, 69; and Pársí, 1. The *táluk* contained in 1882-83—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 63 men. Revenue (1882-83), £11,691. In 1882-83 the area assessed to land revenue was 35,362 acres; the area actually cultivated, 32,897 acres.

Rohri.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 27° 42′ N., and long. 68° 56′ E., upon the right or west bank of the Indus, on a rocky eminence of limestone interspersed with flints. Population (1881) 10,224, namely, 5361 males and 4863 females. Hindus number 3097; Muhammadans, 4882; Christians, 69;

Pársí, 1; and aboriginal tribes, 2175. The Hindus, who are mostly of the Baniyá caste, are engaged in trade, banking, and money-lending, while the Muhammadans are chiefly of the Kázi, Sayyid, Bhuta, Kori, Patoli, Muhána, Khati, Memon, Shaik, and Shikári tribes.

Rohri is said to have been founded by Sayyid Rukandín Sháh in 1297. The rocky site terminates abruptly on the west in a precipice 40 feet high, rising from the bank of the river, which during the inundation season attains a height of about 16 feet above its lowest level. On the northern side is the mouth of the new supply channel for the NARA (EASTERN) (*q.v.*), 156 feet wide, which is provided with powerful sluice-gates to regulate the supply of water, as required.

Rohri, when seen from a little distance, has a striking and pleasing appearance, the houses being lofty, frequently four and five storeys high, with flat roofs surrounded by balustrades; some are of burnt brick, erected many years ago by wealthy merchants belonging to the place. But the streets are in several parts very narrow, and the air close and unwholesome. Rohri has road communication with Mírpur, Kandár, and Sangrár, and the main trunk road from Haidarábád to Múltán also passes through it. The town has derived a new importance as the station where the North-Western State Railway (formerly the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi) crosses the Indus. The passage is at present effected by steam ferries; but the magnificent iron bridge now under construction (1886) will complete the line between Karáchi and Calcutta, *viâ* Lahore and Delhi. The chief public buildings are the *múkhtiárkár's* court, municipal commissioners' office, dispensary, police station, travellers' rest-house, Government schools, post-office, and cattle pound. The police force for the protection of the town numbers 10 men.

Rohri has a large number of Muhammadan places of worship. One, known as the Jamá Masjid, was built in 1564 by Fateh Khán, a lieutenant of the Emperor Akbar; it is a massive but gloomy pile of red brick, covered with three domes, and coated with glazed porcelain tiles. The other, the Idgah Masjid, was erected in 1593 by Mír Musan Sháh. The War Mubárak, a building about 25 feet square, situated to the north of the town, was erected about 1545 by Mír Muhammad, the reigning Kalhora prince, for the reception of a hair from the beard of Muhammad. This hair, to which miraculous properties are ascribed by the faithful, is set in amber, which again is enclosed in a gold case studded with rubies and emeralds, the gift of Mír Alí Murád of Khairpur. The relic is exposed to view every March; when the hair is made by some mechanical process to rise and fall, a fact which the devotees are led to believe proceeds from supernatural agency.

Rohri possesses a municipality, established in 1855, and the town has, in consequence, been greatly improved both as regards health and

appearance. The municipal income in 1883-84 amounted to £1487; the incidence of taxation per head of population, 2s. 6d. The trade is principally in grain, oil, *ghí*, salt, fuller's earth, lime, and fruits. *Tasar* silk is manufactured, as well as gold and silver bracelets, and other ornaments. Paper of an indifferent quality is also made; but, as a whole, the manufactures are unimportant. Opposite to Rohri on the Indus is the small island of Khwája Khizr, containing the shrine of a saint who is revered alike by Muhammadans and Hindus.

Rohtak.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 28° 19′ and 29° 17′ N. lat., and between 76° 17′ and 77° 30′ E. long. Area, 1811 square miles. Population (1881) 553,609. Rohtak forms the south-eastern District of the Hissár Division, and is situated on the confines of Rájputána, beyond the southern boundary of the Punjab proper. It is bounded on the north by Jínd (Jhind) State and Karnál District; on the east by Delhi and Gurgáon Districts; on the south by Gurgáon District, Pataudi and Dujána States; and on the west by Hissár District and Jínd State. Rohtak stands twenty-seventh in order of area, and nineteenth in order of population among the 32 Districts of the Punjab. It comprises 1·70 per cent. of the total area, and 2·94 per cent. of the total population of the Province. It contains little more than half the average area of a Punjab District; but in extent of cultivation it ranks eighth, and in amount of revenue sixth, among the Districts of the Province. It is divided into four *tahsíls*, of which Gohána comprises the northern, Jhajjar the southern, Samplá the east central, and Rohtak the west central portion of the District. At the point of junction of Jhajjar, Samplá, and Rohtak *tahsíls* are situated the two estates of Dujána and Mahrana, comprising an area of 11½ square miles, which form a portion of the territory of Dujána State, although completely surrounded by Rohtak villages. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at the town of ROHTAK, on the main road from Delhi to Hissár.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Rohtak lies in the midst of the level table-land separating the Jumna (Jamuná) and Sutlej (Satlaj) valleys, and is one of the few Punjab Districts which nowhere abuts on any one of the great rivers. Its surface is one unbroken plain, consisting of a hard clay, interspersed with light yellow sand, and covered in its wild state by a jungle of scrubby brushwood. Towards the south-west, the proportion of sand increases as the plain approaches the confines of the desert; but in the remainder of the District, cultivation has probably reached its utmost limit. Eastward, the land falls gradually towards the Delhi frontier, becoming low and swampy in the neighbourhood of the Najafgarh *jhíl*, a marshy lake which forms the only natural reservoir for the drainage of the District. This *jhíl*

itself lies within the boundaries of DELHI; but the Sahibi, a little *nála* flowing from the Ajmere (Ajmír) Hills, traverses a corner of Rohtak, and is the solitary stream of which the District can boast. During the rainy season it throws off numerous smaller watercourses, which irrigate and occasionally flood the surrounding country. The Rohtak and Butána branches of the Western Jumna Canal supply water to the northern *parganás*, but the greater portion of the central plain is entirely dependent upon the uncertain rainfall. So absolutely level is the surface, that rain sinks in as it falls; and it is only by artificial means that the water can be enticed into the tanks which have been rudely excavated in the neighbourhood of every village. Their origin is of immemorial antiquity, and their pleasant fringe of trees and brushwood forms a characteristic feature in the otherwise monotonous landscape. The only exception to the general flatness is to be found on a part of the Gurgáon boundary, where a few low rocky hills crop up above the barren and sandy levels of the south-eastern angle. Game is plentiful, including wild hog, deer, and hare. Peafowl, partridge, and small birds are to be met with throughout the year; and during the cold season, wild geese, bustards, and flamingoes swell the list. Wolves are still common, and a stray leopard is occasionally killed.

History.—Rohtak was formerly included within the undefined boundaries of the region which bore the name of Hariána. The town of Mahím appears to have been its most important centre in early years, and is said to have been destroyed by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, but restored in 1266. Little can be ascertained, however, with reference to its annals before the year 1718, when the whole of Hariána was granted by the Emperor Farukhsiyyár to his minister, Rukhan-ud-daulá. The courtier made over his title in turn to a Balúch noble, Faujdár Khán, who was created Nawáb of Farukhnagar in 1732. The Nawáb's dominions embraced the present Districts of Hissár and Rohtak, besides part of Gurgáon and a considerable region since annexed by the Sikh chieftains of Jínd and Patiála. Faujdár Khán handed down his possessions to his son, who held them with varying fortunes till his death in 1760. That date coincides with the final collapse of the decaying empire, being the year in which Alamgír was murdered, and the titular Emperor Sháh Alam ascended the throne of Delhi. His rule hardly extended beyond the city walls, and a period of anarchy set in. The next year saw the crushing defeat of the Maráthás at Pánípat, after which the Sikh adventurers began to change their policy from mere predatory incursions to conquest and settlement. The new Nawáb of Farukhnagar found his title from the first purely nominal; and in 1762 he was driven from his capital by the Ját leader, Jawáhar Singh of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore).

For the next twenty years, Hariána passed through the usual vicissitudes of Upper India in this anarchic time: now the Nawáb recovered for a time his hereditary dominions; now Najaf Khán bestowed them on one of his followers; and now again the husband of Begam Sumru of Sardhána (Walter Reinhardt) held part of them in fief. The Maráthás in 1785 put a stop for a while to these disorders; but even Sindhia was not able to repel the Sikh invasions, and in the end he was compelled to settle large portions of Hariána on the Sikh rulers of Kaithal and Jínd. Meanwhile the military adventurer George Thomas had carved out a principality for himself from the remainder, and fortified his position in two strongholds at Georgegarh near Jhajjar, and Hánsi in the District of Hissár. In 1802, the Maráthás, under their French generals, succeeded in ousting Thomas; but the conquests of Lord Lake, a year later, laid the whole country, up to the Sutlej and the Siwáliks, at the feet of the British Government. In fact, however, the supremacy of the Maráthás west of the Jumna, in its upper course, had been little more than nominal; and some time elapsed before any practical measures were taken in the cis-Sutlej and Hariána regions.

The northern *parganás* of Rohtak were held by the Sikh chiefs of Jínd and Kaithal, while the south was granted to the Nawáb of Jhajjar, the west to his brother the Nawáb of Dádri and Bahádurgarh, and the central tract to the Nawáb of Dujána. The latter, however, was unable to maintain order in his portion of the territories thus assigned; and the frequent incursions of Sikh and Bhatti marauders compelled the despatch of an English officer in 1810, to bring the region into better organization. The few *parganás* thus subjected to British rule formed the nucleus of the present District. Other fringes of territory escheated on the deaths of the Kaithal Rájá in 1818, and the chieftain of Jínd in 1820. In the last-named year, Hissár and Sirsa were separated from Rohtak; and in 1824, the District of Pánípat (now Karnál) was erected into a separate charge.

Up to the year 1832, Rohtak was administered by a Political Agent under the Resident at Delhi; but it was then brought under the General Regulations, and annexed to the North-Western Provinces. On the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, Rohtak was for a time completely lost to the British Government. The Muhammadan tribes united with their brethren in Gurgáon and Hissár, and began a general predatory movement under the Nawábs of Farukhnagar, Jhajjar, and Bahádurgarh, and the Bhatti chieftains of Sirsa and Hissár. They attacked and plundered the civil station at Rohtak, destroying every record of administration. But before the fall of Delhi, a force of Punjab levies was brought across the Sutlej, and order was restored with little difficulty. The rebel Nawábs of Jhajjar and Bahádurgarh were captured and tried. The former was executed at Delhi, while his

neighbour and relative escaped with a sentence of exile to Lahore. Their estates were confiscated, part of them being temporarily erected into a new District of Jhajjar, while other portions were assigned to the Rájás of Jínd, Patiála, and Nábha, as rewards for their services during the Mutiny. Rohtak District was transferred to the Punjab Government; and in 1860, Jhajjar was broken up, part of it being added to the territory of the loyal Rájás, and the remainder united with Rohtak.

Population.—The territorial changes which followed so fast during the middle of the present century make it impossible to give any accurate comparative statement of the population at different periods; but by adding and subtracting the official returns for the various fluctuating *parganás* at either date, an increase is found on the constant portion, between 1846 and 1868, amounting to 61 per cent. So great an advance in little more than twenty years is scarcely credible; yet we must allow a very rapid rate of growth, as the more accurate figures of the enumerations taken in 1853 and 1868 show an increase of 20 per cent. in fifteen years, which may be accepted as approximately correct. The Census of 1868 disclosed a total of 531,118. The last enumeration in 1881 returned the population of Rohtak District at 553,609, showing an increase of 22,491, or 4·2 per cent., in thirteen years.

The general results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1811 square miles; towns and villages, 486; number of houses, 118,330, namely, occupied 74,813, and unoccupied 43,517; number of families, 553,609. Total population, 553,609, namely, males 296,224, and females 215,792. Average density of population, 306 persons per square mile, varying from 240 per square mile in Jhajjar *tahsíl*, to 378 per square mile in Gohána. Number of villages per square mile, ·27; persons per town or village, 1139; houses per square mile, 65; persons per house, 7·4. Classified according to sex and age, the population comprises—under 15 years, males 107,211, and females 91,944; total children, 199,155, or 35·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 189,013, and females 165,441; total adults, 354,454, or 64·1 per cent.

Religion.—As regards religious distinctions, Rohtak is essentially a Hindu District, as many as 468,905 persons, or 84·6 per cent., being adherents of the ancestral faith. The Muhammadans here sink to 79,510 persons, or 14·3 per cent. Only 159 Sikhs are recorded, belonging chiefly to the ruling families. Jains number 5000; Christians and others, 35.

As regards ethnical distinctions, the Bráhmans number 58,211 persons, most of whom are engaged in agriculture, an occupation which they follow with much indolence and thriftlessness. The Rájputs amount to 7354 Hindus and 22,620 Musalmáns. Like their neigh-

bours, the Bhattis of Hissár and Sirsa, they still retain somewhat of the cattle-lifting reputation which they earned during the long anarchy of the Sikh and Maráthá struggle. The trading classes are represented by 41,470 Baniyás, a large number of whom profess the Jain creed. The majority of the people belong to the inferior castes, amongst which the Játs rank by far the first, forming more than one-third of the whole population. They are returned at 180,778 Hindus, and 1998 converted to Islám. The Játs keep up their usual reputation for painstaking agriculture; they are divided into two principal clans, which entertain towards one another a singular animosity. There is also a considerable sprinkling of Gújars (3032), Patháns (5155), and Balúchís (1986).

Town and Rural Population.—The District is noticeable for the very small number of minor villages, and the large proportion of towns with a population exceeding 4000. In 1881 there were 13 so returned—namely, ROHTAK, 15,699; JHAJJAR, 11,650; BUTANA, 7656; GOHANA, 7444; KALANAUR, 7371; MAHIM, 7315; BERI, 6695; BAHADURGARH, 6674; BARODA, 5900; MANDLANA, 5469; KANHAUR, 5251; SANGHI, 5194; and KHARKHANDA, 4144. These figures show a total of 96,462, or 17·4 per cent. of the District population; but they cannot be considered to represent the real urban population, since many of the above-named places are rather overgrown villages than towns strictly so called. As there were also 169 villages containing a population of more than 1000, out of a total of 486 for the whole District, the tendency for the agricultural body to aggregate in considerable clusters is very marked, and may perhaps be set down to the general insecurity of the country during the century which preceded the British occupation. Only 54 villages contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 134 contained from two to five hundred; and 129 from five hundred to a thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 returned the adult male population under the following seven classes:—(1) Professional class, including all Government officials, civil and military, 7827; (2) domestic and menial class, 7803; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 5440; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 100,216; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including artisans, 48,721; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, 11,481; (7) unspecified, 7525. Urdu and Hindí are the languages in common use.

Agriculture.—Almost all the available land in the District is already under tillage, the returns for 1883–84 showing a total of 906,334 acres cultivated, with a narrow margin of 166,790 acres of cultivable waste, the balance consisting of 5198 acres of grazing ground, and 68,671 acres of uncultivable waste. In the central and southern

parganás, where the peasant is entirely dependent upon the rainfall for his water-supply, barley and gram form the staple spring crops, while *joár*, *bájra*, and cotton are the mainstays of the autumn harvest; but in the canal-irrigated villages to the north and east, wheat is added to the list in spring, and rice or sugar-cane in autumn. The area under the principal crops in 1883–84 is returned as follows—*joár*, 291,021 acres; *bájra*, 171,251 acres; gram, 166,701 acres; wheat, 61,311 acres; barley, 30,384 acres; *moth*, 24,833 acres; rice, 4452 acres; oil-seeds, 2483 acres; cotton, 45,052 acres; sugar-cane, 11,781 acres; and indigo, 4011 acres. Irrigation is chiefly confined to the canal system, the depth of water below the surface, except on the low-lying eastern border, being generally too great to permit the profitable working of wells. The total area irrigated in 1883–84 amounted to 119,408 acres, of which 110,991 acres were supplied from Government works and 8417 acres from private sources. The use of manure is on the increase, and the villagers are beginning to appreciate the value of a rotation of crops. Yet the District authorities are of opinion that cultivation has almost reached its highest point, and the land is reported to be in a condition of gradual impoverishment. The growth of cotton and hemp is increasing. The average out-turn per acre in 1883–84 was returned as follows:—Wheat, 960 lbs.; rice, 787 lbs.; barley, 522 lbs.; gram, 308 lbs.; indigo, 590 lbs.; oil-seeds, 192 lbs.; and cotton, 236 lbs. per acre. The agricultural stock of the District in 1883 comprised—cows and bullocks, 204,293; horses, 1218; ponies, 1644; donkeys, 10,889; sheep and goats, 59,731; pigs, 10,727; and camels, 2332.

The mode of tenure known as *bháyáchára*, or brotherhood, is the most common. Throughout the District, the villages are banded together by custom into an organized cluster (or *tappa*), which formerly owned the supremacy of one chief (or *tappadári*) village. The *tappa* includes all the communities immediately surrounding the central and supreme village without distinction of race or caste; and the league is thus in all probability a relic of some defensive arrangement, concerted during the period of Sikh and Bhatti incursions. In many villages, local custom subjects the non-cultivating classes to a tax (called *kamíni*) in favour of the proprietors. By far the greater part of the soil is cultivated by tenants-at-will. Rents rule as follows, according to the nature of the crop which the soil is fitted to produce:—Cotton lands, from 1s. 6d. to £1 per acre; sugar-cane lands, from 2s. to £1, 4s. per acre; wheat lands, irrigated, from 3s. to £1; dry, from 2s. to 9s. per acre; other grains, dry land, from 6d. to 8s. per acre. The Government land revenue assessment in 1883–84 amounted to £94,834, or an average of 2s. 0¾d. per cultivated acre.

Wages have risen of late years, the change being attributed to the

emigration of labourers (principally Chamárs), to find employment on the railway and the Sirhind Canal. Skilled workmen in towns are paid at the rate of from 6d. to 1s. per diem, and unskilled workmen receive from 3d. to 4½d. Agricultural labourers are generally paid in cash; as much as 4½d. per diem, with food, is sometimes given at harvest-time. In canal villages, labourers take their wages in kind, receiving one-third of the crop. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows on the 1st January 1884:—Wheat, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt.; gram and barley, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; and rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Rohtak, like its neighbour Hissár, suffers greatly from drought. Nine-tenths of its area is entirely dependent on the rainfall, and scarcity from this cause pressed upon the District in 1824, 1830, 1832, and 1837. The severe famine of 1860–61 taxed the people to their utmost endurance; and the season of 1868–69 was a most disastrous one. Two successive crops, both of grain and fodder, had failed in the dry southern plain, and distress began to show itself early in 1868. Relief measures were at once adopted, and the total number of persons who received gratuitous assistance during the month of January 1869 amounted to 150,102. Famine works were also undertaken, and continued until August. Fears were at one time entertained for the succeeding autumn and spring harvests, but rain happily fell in time to save the District from such an aggravation of its misfortunes. The loss of cattle added to the misfortunes of the cultivating classes. Out of 350,100 head in the District, as many as 88,300, or more than 25 per cent., perished from starvation or disease.

Perhaps, however, the last famine in 1877–78, also caused by drought, was as disastrous, and certainly as ruinous as regards the loss of cattle. There was but little rain in June 1877, none in July or August, and only two inches in September, when it was too late to sow anything. Grass withered away from the face of the soil, the cattle began to die in large numbers in the autumn, and famine prices were soon reached. Highway robberies grew common, grain carts were plundered, and finally the *bázár* at Badlı was attacked and plundered by the Játs of the place. The winter rains again failed, and the mortality among cattle became terrible; but no actual relief measures were set on foot. Fortunately, good rain fell at last in July and August 1878, and though the later rains were scanty, an abundant crop of fodder was obtained and a fair crop of grain. During the cold weather of 1877–78, the aspect of the country was desolate beyond description. There was literally no crop in the rain-land villages; in a ride of 20 miles not even two or three plots were to be seen. The grass had wholly disappeared, and nothing but thorns and weeds met the eye

in the fields. The loss of cattle of agriculturists amounted to 176,000 in one way or another—by sale, deaths, or transfers; and it will take the District many years to recover from this. Ultimately, £8000 of the collections due in the spring of 1879 was suspended, which perhaps gave a little relief. Of this drought the people quote the following lines:—'An ox sold for a piece of bread, and a camel for a farthing; the year has destroyed the stock (root) of oxen and buffaloes. The year has killed thirty-four tribes (out of thirty-six); two only, the trader and butcher, have survived, the one by use of his scales and the other by use of his knife.'

The people declare that the loss of cattle from famines is now much greater than it used to be; and, in so far as there are now no large grazing grounds in the District and the number of cattle has greatly increased, this is true. But fodder is perhaps more carefully preserved than in former days, and famines from actual scarcity of food causing general starvation cannot occur. But again the traders, though they keep by them larger stores of grain than formerly, speculate more freely, and export largely, where they had in old days to confine themselves to the local markets; their relations also with the people are more strained than they used to be. The recurrence of famines is the most important historical feature in the revenue administration of the District, of whose area only 13 per cent. is artificially protected against drought; and it affects the agriculturists to some degree in their social relations. The people of rain-land villages strive to get a few acres of canal land to cultivate in years of drought; and so great is the burden of this to the dwellers in canal estates, that they will not marry their daughters into rain-land villages, if they can help it.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Rohtak is a purely agricultural District, whose produce hardly more than suffices for its home consumption. A small surplus of grain, cotton, and other raw materials is exported to Delhi, Meerut, and Sahâranpur; while piece-goods, spices, iron, sugar, salt, and timber are imported in exchange. Trade is carried on both at permanent markets and religious fairs. There are no manufactures of more than local importance, with the exception of ornamental turbans at Rohtak and saddlery at Kalânaur. Pretty pottery is made at Jhajjar, and cotton cloth for home use is woven in large quantities. A branch of the new Firozpur-Rewári Railway passes through Rohtak District for a distance of 12 miles. The District had 66 miles of metalled and 493 miles of unmetalled road in 1884; the Western Jumna Canal is not navigable in this part of its course.

Administration.—The imperial revenue of Rohtak District amounted in 1872–73 to £93,310, of which £89,184, or 95 per cent., was derived from the land-tax. There was also a local revenue of £7438, besides certain provincial dues which are not collected by separate Districts.

By 1883-84, the total revenue had fallen to £78,346, and the land-tax to £65,440. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsíldárs*, and their subordinates. There were 9 civil and revenue and 23 criminal courts in Rohtak in 1883. The imperial and municipal police numbered 455 men of all ranks. The special village watch is supplemented in this District by a local custom, in accordance with which all able-bodied men of each community take their turn by lot as watchmen. The total number of persons brought to trial upon all charges in 1883 amounted to 1116. There is only one jail in the District, the average daily number of prisoners in which amounted to 236 in 1883.

Education is slowly progressing in Rohtak. In 1872-73 there were 2852 children receiving instruction. In 1883-84, there were in all (exclusive of indigenous village schools) 49 Government and aided schools under inspection by the Education Department, attended by 2914 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 2864 boys and 33 girls as under instruction; and 13,814 males and 70 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction.

There are 6 municipalities, namely, Rohtak, Beri, Jhajjar, Kharkhanda, Bahádurgarh, and Gohána. The aggregate revenue of these towns amounted in 1883 to £3018, being at the rate of 1s. 1½d. per head of their population.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Rohtak is considered healthy, except in the northern portions, where percolation from the canal produces malaria, and generates the same fevers and spleen complaints that are so common under similar circumstances in the adjoining District of Karnál. Small-pox also exists in an endemic form. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1883 was 14,171, or 25 per thousand of the population; but these figures are probably considerably below the truth. Four charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 812 in-door and 19,115 out-door patients in 1883. The average annual rainfall at Rohtak town for seventeen years ending 1882-83 was 18·8 inches. In 1883-84, only 14·4 inches were measured. No thermometrical returns are available. [For further information regarding Rohtak District, see the *Gazetteer of Rohtak District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government (Lahore, 1884); *Report on the Revised Land Revenue Settlement of Rohtak District*, 1873-79, by Messrs. W. E. Purser and H. C. Fanshawe, B.C.S. (published 1880); the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government.]

Rohtak.—West central *tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab; consisting of a sandy and almost waterless plain. Area, 587 square miles; towns and villages, 104; number of houses, 35,282, namely, occupied

23,792, and unoccupied 11,490; number of families, 35,962. Total population (1881) 171,215, namely, males 91,006, and females 80,209. Average density of population, 292 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 134,917; Muhammadans, 34,834; Jains, 1338; Sikhs, 95; and Christians, 31. Of the 104 towns and villages, 27 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 31 from five hundred to a thousand; 40 from one to five thousand; and 6 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. The average annual area under crops for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 is returned at 357 square miles, or 228,555 acres, the principal crops being—*joár*, 80,450 acres; gram, 54,154 acres; *bájra*, 36,058 acres; wheat, 18,710 acres; barley, 8543 acres; *moth*, 3411 acres; rice, 1205 acres; cotton, 10,857 acres; and sugar-cane, 4631 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £23,715. The administrative staff, including the District head-quarters officers, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Assistant Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and 2 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 5 civil and 6 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 127 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 219.

Rohtak.—Town and municipality in Rohtak District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Rohtak District and *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 28° 54′ N., and long. 76° 38′ E., 42 miles north-west of Delhi, on the Hissár road. Rohtak town dates from a remote antiquity, though little can now be recovered of its early history. The ancient site, known as Khokra-kot, lies a small distance north of the modern town. Rebuilt, according to one tradition, in the time of Prithwi Ráj (1160 A.D.); according to another, as early as the middle of the 4th century. During the stormy period which succeeded the decay of the Mughal Empire, Rohtak fell into the hands of one chieftain after another. It became in 1824 the head-quarters of a British District, a position which it has since retained. Population (1881) 15,699, namely, males 8155, and females 7544. Hindus number 8180; Muhammadans, 6928; Jains, 501; Sikhs, 62; and Christians, 28. Number of houses, 2622. Municipal income (1883-84), £756, or 1s. per head. The town is the centre of a local grain trade, but is of small commercial importance outside its own neighbourhood. Manufacture of cotton turbans. Court-house, police station, *tahsíli*, church, *dák* bungalow, post-office, school-house, dispensary, public garden. An annual horse show is held at Rohtak in October, which, though only recently established, promises to become very popular.

Rohtang.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Himálayan ranges. Lat. 32° 22′ 20″ N., long. 77° 17′ 20″ E. The pass lies between Koksár in Láhul and Palchán in Kúlu. A made road runs over it, practicable for laden mules and ponies. The crest has an elevation

of only 13,000 feet above the sea—very much lower than that of most neighbouring passes. The range on either side rises to a height of 16,000 feet, while several peaks within 12 miles exceed 20,000 feet. The main road from Sultánpur and Kángra to Leh and Yárkand crosses this pass, and then proceeds by the valleys of the Chandra and Bhága to the Bára Lácha, whence it descends into Ladákh. The Rohtang pass is generally open fairly well until the end of December. The Beas (Biás) takes its rise at the summit of the pass from a spring called Biáskund, which is regarded with a certain amount of veneration by Hindus.

Rohtás.—*See post*, ROTAS.

Rohtásgarh. — Hill fort in Sháhábád District, Bengal, about 30 miles south of Sasseram town, overlooking the junction of the Koel with the Son (Soane) river. Lat. 24° 37′ 30″ N., long. 83° 55′ 50″ E. The principal place of interest in the District from an antiquarian point of view. It derives its name from Rohitáswa, son of Harischandra, a Hindu king of the Solar dynasty, whose image was worshipped on this spot till destroyed by Aurangzeb. Little is known concerning the persons who held the fort from Harischandra's time until 1539, the year of its capture by Sher Sháh, who immediately began to strengthen the works, but soon after selected a more favourable site at SHERGARH. Mán Singh, Akbar's Viceroy of Bengal, at the end of the 16th century, chose Rohtás as his stronghold; and two inscriptions in Sanskrit and Persian attribute to him all the buildings now existing. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the table-land of Rohtásgarh, about 4 miles from east to west and 5 miles from north to south, with a circumference of nearly 28 miles. In 1848, Dr. Hooker ascertained its precise elevation to be 1490 feet. Much of the area is bare rock, but there is also a large quantity of red soil. The hill is accessible by 83 paths, of which four are called the great *gháts*, and the rest *ghátis*. The principal antiquities of Rohtásgarh are—two temples, said to have been built by Mán Singh, one of which is covered by a dome surpassing in lightness all the Hindu works that Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton had ever seen; a small mosque, ascribed to Aurangzeb; the palace or *mahál sarái*, with the building known as the *bará dwári* or twelve gates, where business was transacted. All these edifices are fully described in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 209–212. (There is another famous Rohtás fort on the skirts of the Salt Range, in the Punjab. *See* under ROTAS, the spelling fixed by the Punjab Government.)

Rojhan. — Town in Rájanpur *tahsíl*, Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 28° 17′ N., long. 68° 19′ E., on the west bank of the Indus, below Dera Ghází Khán town. Capital of the Mazári Balúchis, having been founded by Bahrám Khán, Tumándár or chief of that tribe, about 1825. The present chief has built a fine court-

house for his own use as honorary magistrate, and a mosque and handsome tomb in memory of his father and nephew. Population (1868) 5656, namely, Muhammadans, 4319; Hindus, 1269; and Sikhs, 68. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Manufacture of woollen rugs and nose-bags for horses.

Rojhi (or *Rozi*).—Island, lighthouse, and temple in the State of Nawánagar, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Situated at the mouth of the Nawánagar creek, 8 miles north of Nawánagar town, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch. The temple is dedicated to a Charan woman with whom a *roz* or *nil-gai* took shelter from the pursuit of a chief of Nagar; the woman refused to surrender it, and on its being forcibly killed, cursed its slayer and committed suicide. The lighthouse stands on a white round tower 42 feet above high water on the temple on the north-east of the island. Lat. 22° 32′ 50″ N., long. 70° 1′ 30″ E. A white fixed light, visible 7 miles in clear weather. Built in 1867 by the chief of Nawánagar.

Rokha Jáis.—*Parganá* and town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh.—*See* JAIS.

Ron.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the north-east corner of the District. Area, 370 square miles. Population (1872) 73,503; (1881) 60,724, namely, 29,726 males and 30,998 females, occupying 11,644 houses, in 1 town and 58 villages. Hindus number 56,090; Muhammadans, 4562; and 'others,' 72. Ron Sub-division is one stretch of rich black soil, without a hill or upland. The people are skilful, hard-working husbandmen, and well-to-do. Water-supply poor. The South Maráthá Railway traverses the Sub-division, with two stations—Alúr and Mallapur. In 1881-82, out of the whole area held for tillage, 3452 acres were fallow or under grass; the principal crops being—grain, 159,843 acres; pulses, 10,518 acres; oil-seeds, 9798 acres; fibres, 67,105 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 341 acres. In 1884 the Sub-division contained—criminal courts, 2; police circle (*thánâ*), 1; regular police, 42 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 174. Land revenue, £16,447. Schools, 20.

Ron.—Chief town of the Sub-division of Ron, in Dhárwár District, Bombay. Lat. 15° 41′ 30″ N., long. 75° 11′ 1″ E.; 55 miles north-east of Dhárwár town. Population (1881) 5229. Seven black stone temples, in one of which is an inscription dated 1180. Post-office.

Ronáhi.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 10 miles from Faizábád town, near the bank of the Gogra. Population (1881) 5210, namely, Hindus, 3418; Muhammadans, 1788; and 'others,' 4. Five Hindu and 3 Jain temples; *sarái;* Government school. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway and the Faizábád road pass near the town.

Roorkee.—*Tahsíl* and town in Sahéranpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* RURKI.

Rori. — Town and municipality in Dabwálí *tahsíl*, Sirsa District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 43′ N., long. 75° 37′ E.; distant from Sirsa town 19 miles north-west. Population (1881) 3063, namely, Hindus, 1301; Sikhs, 887; Muhammadans, 740; Jains, 134; and Christian, 1. Number of houses, 369. Municipal income (1883-84), £62. The place is merely an agricultural village, or rather collection of hamlets, with little or no trade.

Roshnábád. — Estate or *zamíndárí* in Tipperah District, Bengal. Area, 589 square miles, comprising 53 fiscal divisions. A permanently settled estate, belonging to the Rájá of Hill Tipperah, who pays an annual land revenue of £15,361.

Roshra.—Town in Darbhángah District, Bengal.—*See* RUSERA.

Rotás.—Ruined fort in Jehlam (Jhelum) *tahsíl*, Jehlam District, Punjab. Situated in the Salt Range, on a hill overlooking the gorge of the Kuhán Nadi, 11 miles north-west of Jehlam town, in lat. 32° 55′ N., and long. 73° 49′ E. The fort was built by the Afghán Sher Sháh about 1540, during the time of his usurpation of the throne of Delhi, as a check on the Ghakkar tribe. The walls extend for 3 miles, and encircle the rocks which command the entrance of the pass. Some parts have a thickness of from 30 to 40 feet. The total area enclosed by the fortifications amounts to 260 acres. One gateway still remains in excellent preservation; the rest has fallen into ruins, which form a most striking and picturesque group.

Rotásgarh.—*See ante*, ROHTASGARH.

Rouk-thwa. — Stream which rises in the Paung-laung range in Taung-gú District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. — *See* YAUK-THWA.

Rozi.—Island, lighthouse, and temple in the State of Nawánagar, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* ROJHI.

Rudauli. — *Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Gogra river, on the east by Mangalsi, on the south by Mawái Maholára, and on the west by Basorhi and Daryábád. Area, 173 square miles, or 111,102 acres, of which 73,316 acres are cultivated. Population (1881) 98,868, namely, Hindus, 79,017; Muhammadans, 19,828; and 'others,' 23. Land revenue, £14,692. Of the 196 villages comprising the *parganá*, 86 are held in *tálukdárí*, 70 in *zamíndárí*, and 40 in *pattidárí* tenure. Seven market villages; 9 village schools; post-office; police station, with 2 outposts.

Rudauli.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Rudauli *parganá*; situated 37 miles south-east of the civil station, in lat. 26° 44′ 45″ N., and long. 81° 47′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 11,394, namely, Muhammadans 6378, and Hindus 5016. Number

of houses, 2233. The foundation of the town is ascribed to a Bhar chief, Rudra Mall. A thriving commercial town, with daily markets, at which a brisk trade is carried on in grain, vegetables, cotton, and cloth. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Rudra Himála.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 58′ N., long. 79° 9′ E.; on the eastern frontier of Garhwál, towards Chinese Tartary. Thornton describes it as consisting of 5 huge snow-covered summits, rising above a mass of bare rocky cliffs. Elevation above sea-level, estimated at 22,390 feet.

Rudra Prayág.—Temple in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Stands at the junction of the Mandákini, draining the southern slopes of the Kedárnáth and Badrináth peaks, with the ALAKNANDA. One of the five sacred *prayágs* or confluences of the Hindus, and a halting-place for pilgrims to Himáchal. Six miles above the junction of the Mandákini and Alaknandá rivers, a dome-shaped rock, 30 feet in height by 15 in diameter, bears the name of Bhím-ka-chulha or the Kitchen of Bhím, a famous giant of Hindu mythology. It is completely excavated, and has apertures at the top, where Bhím used to place his cooking utensils. The temple is small, and stands by the water's edge. Elevation above sea-level, 2200 feet.

Rudrapur (*Rudarpur*).—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 26° 26′ 40″ N., and long. 83° 39′ 35″ E.; on the Bathuá *nála*, upon the Gorakhpur and Barhaj road, 23 miles south-east of Gorakhpur town. Population (1881) 9843, namely, Hindus 8840, and Muhammadans 1003. The *gola* or grain market, in the business part of the town, is the entrepôt whence the grain and *gúr* (syrup) of the neighbourhood are exported by river. Except by river, the trade is purely local; and it is prevented from developing by a cordon of quagmires created by the rains, which for several months of the year prevents any wheeled communication with the rest of the District. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes. Within the limits of the town are the remains of an enormous fort, said to have been erected by the early Rájput settlers when threatened by the aboriginal Bhars, before the recovery of the country by the latter. (*See* GORAKHPUR DISTRICT.) Fair in February attracts about 1500 persons.

Rudrapur.—Small village in the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 58′ N., long. 79° 26′ 40″ E.; distant from Bareli city 53 miles north, upon the Almorá road. Stands among fine mango groves. Population (1881) 812. Ruined temples and tombs; malarious climate.

Rumpah.—Hill tract in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* RAMPA.

Runang.—Pass in Bashahr (Bassahir) State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 43′

N., long. 78° 28′ E.; lies over a range in Kunáwar, dividing the valley of Raskalang from that of Píjar. According to Thornton, the crest does not reach the limit of perpetual snow. Closed during the four coldest months, when the route runs along a circuitous and dangerous track by the side of the Sutlej. Elevation above sea-level, 14,500.

Run-za-lin (correctly *Yun-za-lin*).—River in the Tenasserim Division of Lower Burma.—*See* YUN-ZA-LIN.

Rupál.—Petty State and town in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. The State contains 11 villages; the area of land under cultivation is estimated at 21,000 *bighás*. Population (1881) 3497. The revenue is returned at £350; and tribute of £116, 9s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £36, 4s. to the Rájá of Edar. The chief of Rupál, Thákúr Mán Singh, is a Rehwár Rájput. Rupál is the chief town of the State. School.

Rúpar.—North-western *tahsíl* of Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; lying at the foot of the Simla Hills, and along the south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Area, 277 square miles; towns and villages, 361; number of houses, 33,585, namely, occupied 25,496, and unoccupied 8089; number of families, 26,227. Total population (1881) 154,303, namely, males 88,046, and females 66,257. Average density, 557 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 85,439; Muhammadans, 49,276; Sikhs, 19,341; Jains, 127; and Christians, 120. Of the 361 towns and villages, 271 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 65 from five hundred to a thousand; and 24 from one to two thousand inhabitants. The only place with a population exceeding two thousand inhabitants is RUPAR TOWN (10,326). The average annual area under crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 is returned at 211 square miles, or 135,084 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 46,275 acres; Indian corn, 22,159 acres; *joár*, 17,814 acres; gram, 11,048 acres; *moth*, 7559 acres; rice, 2456 acres; barley, 2212 acres; *bájra*, 1788 acres; cotton, 8426 acres; sugar-cane, 7139 acres; and indigo, 899 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £13,211. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and 2 honorary magistrates, who preside over 4 civil and 3 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 39 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 408.

Rúpar.—Town and municipality in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Rúpar *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 76° 33′ E., on the south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 43 miles north of Ambála city. The town is of considerable antiquity, formerly known as Rúpnagar. It was occupied about 1763 by Hari Singh, a Sikh chieftain, who seized upon a wide tract south of the Sutlej, stretching along the foot of the Himálayas. In 1792 he divided his estates

between his two sons, Charrat Singh and Dewa Singh, the former of whom obtained Rúpar. The estates were confiscated in 1846, in consequence of the part taken by the family during the Sikh war of the preceding year. Rúpar is important as being the site of the head-works of the Sirhind Canal, and till recently the residence of a numerous staff of European officers, superintending the construction of the works. Population (1881) 10,326, namely, males 6171, and females 4155. Muhammadans number 5110; Hindus, 4708; Sikhs, 388; Jains, 109; and Christians, 11. Number of houses, 1673. Municipal income (1883–84), £665, or an average of 1s. 3½d. per head. Two important religious fairs—one Muhammadan, at the tomb of Sháh Khalíd, in the month of Jaishtha, attracting 50,000 persons; the other, a Hindu bathing festival on the banks of the Sutlej, in April, attended by an equal number of persons. Rúpar is an important mart of exchange between the hills and plains, and carries on a considerable trade in grain, sugar, and indigo. Imports of salt from the Salt Range, re-exported to the hills in return for iron, ginger, potatoes, turmeric, opium, and hemp. Manufacture of cotton cloth, iron hooks, and other hardware. Assistant Commissioner's court, *tahsílí*, police office, staging bungalow.

Rúpbás.—Town in Bhartpur State, Rájputána. The town was founded by Rúp Singh, a descendant of the Rájás of Chittorgarh, who became a Muhammadan, and was a constant attendant at the court of the Emperor Akbar. He built a palace in the Mughal style of architecture, with a large tank attached, both of which are still in existence. There are in the vicinity three colossal images of Baldeojí, his wife, and Yudhisthira; two enormous monolith columns or obelisks, the inscriptions on which are illegible; and another colossal image, supposed to represent a Buddhist or Jain divinity. Dispensary and post-office.

Rúpgarh.—Fort in the Songarh Sub-division of Nosari (Navasari) Division, Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Situated about 15 miles south of the town of Songarh, and about 35 miles east of Nosari station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, in a salient angle of the Baroda frontier. At one time the fort was useful for keeping the Bhíls in check. A tank in the fort is supplied by a perennial spring; Lieutenant J. E. Gibbs, R.E., who visited it in 1875, attributes the presence of the constant supply of cold water with no motion or overflow to the condensation of the vapour of the daily sea-breezes, as in the case of ponds on the South Downs of England.

Rúpnagar.—Town in Udaipur State, Rájputána. Situated on the summit of the Aravallís, between the Desuri and Someshwar passes. Steep and precipitous hill-sides render the village unapproachable from the north and east. Defended by outworks overlooking the plains and

the Desuri pass on the west and south. Founded about 1772, when the Solanki Rájputs of Desuri were finally driven out of that place by Márwár troops. The site seems to have been chosen solely for defence; there is no cultivation belonging to the town, nor is any revenue derived from it.

Rúpnagarh.—Town in Kishangarh State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5665, namely, Hindus, 4053; Muhammadans, 857; and 'others,' 755.

Rúpnáráyan.—River of Bengal. The name given to the DHALKISOR after the confluence of the SILAI, which flows into it from Midnapur District. The course of the Rúpnáráyan, from where it first touches upon Húglí District to where it falls into the Húglí river opposite Húglí Point, in lat. 22° 12′ 30″ N., long. 88° 3′ E., is generally south-easterly. Two miles south of Kailá *ghát*, its principal ferry, the Rúpnáráyan is crossed by the Midnapur High-Level Canal from Ulúbária. It is tidal throughout its entire course; and a heavy bore ascends as high as the mouth of the Bakshshí *khál*, the chief tributary of the Rúpnáráyan within Húglí District. The river is protected on its right bank, within Midnapur District, by a continuous embankment 29 miles 2373 feet in length; and it is also embanked all along its left bank, within Húglí District, from its junction with the Bakshshí *khál* to its union with the Húglí river. The bordering lands are more or less inundated by the spring tides in April and May, which leave behind destructive impregnations of salt, rendering them unfit for cultivation unless small defensive works are thrown up round the fields every year to keep the water out. Grass and *hógla* reeds are the ordinary produce, except in years when the rains set in and close early, when a late rice crop can be planted in September. The Rúpnáráyan is navigable throughout the year by native boats of 4 tons burden as far as Ghátál village, in Midnapur District. The river is not fordable at any season of the year within the limits of Húglí District.

Rúpnáráyan and Rasúlpur Canal.—Tidal canal in Midnapur, Bengal, extending from the Rúpnáráyan to the Rasúlpur river, in the Hijili portion of the District; divided into two reaches. The first reach is called the Bánká Canal, and runs from near the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan river to the Haldí river, a distance of 8 miles: top width, 72 feet; bottom width, 62 feet; depth, 8 feet. The second section is called the Tiropkiá Canal, and runs from the Haldí to the Rasúlpur river, a length of 18 miles: top width, 92 feet; bottom width, 64 feet; depth, 8 feet. These canals were completed and opened throughout on the 1st September 1873. They are intended for navigation only; and the tolls taken during the year 1873-74 amounted to £2797, 16s., while the miscellaneous revenue was £63, 18s. The deficiency for

the year, exclusive of interest, was estimated at £999, 6s. In 1881-82 the tolls amounted to £4653, and the miscellaneous revenue to £120.

Rúpnáth.—Village in the *parganá* of Amwí, in the Jaintia Hills, Assam, with a Hindu temple greatly frequented by pilgrims from the plains of Sylhet. In the neighbourhood are several caverns in the limestone formation, extending for a great distance beneath the earth. Out of one of these a Chinese army is fabled to have marched to the invasion of India. In another, the hanging stalactites have been carved to represent the gods of the Hindu pantheon.

Rúrkha Kalán.—Town in Phillaur *tahsíl*, Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 7′ 12″ N., long. 76° 45′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 5492; consisting of Hindus, 3362; Muhammadans, 1189; and Sikhs 941. Number of houses, 950. Rúrkha Kalán is a mere agricultural village, or collection of hamlets, with an insignificant trade in sugar, but otherwise unimportant. Primary school.

Rúrki.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying at the foot of the Siwálik Hills, along the western bank of the Ganges, and watered by the Ganges Canal, comprising the *parganás* of Rúrki, Jawálápur, Manglaur, and Bhagwánpur. Area, 789 square miles, of which 356 square miles are cultivated. Population (1872) 242,696; (1881) 274,571, namely, males 151,524, and females 123,047. Increase of population since 1872, 31,875, or 13·1 per cent. in nine years. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 189,734; Muhammadans, 82,989; Jains, 480; and 'others,' 1368. Of 433 villages, 271 contain a population of less than five hundred inhabitants; 99 between five hundred and a thousand; 58 between one and five thousand; and 5 upwards of five thousand. Total Government land revenue, £27,987, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £31,362. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £57,921. In 1884 the *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 5 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 7; strength of regular police, 104 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 491.

Rúrki.—Modern manufacturing town, municipality, and cantonment in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Rúrki *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 29° 52′ 25″ N., long. 77° 55′ 40″ E.; on an elevated ridge overlooking the bed of the Soláni river, 22 miles east of Saháranpur city. Population (1872) 10,778; (1881) 15,953, namely, males 9829, and females 6124. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 9574; Muhammadans, 4963; Jains, 121; Christians, 1159; and 'others,' 136. Municipal income (1883-84), £1462, of which £787 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2½d. per head of the population (12,818) within municipal limits.

Before the commencement of the Ganges Canal works, Rúrki was a mere mud-built village on the banks of the Soláni; it is now a flourishing town with broad metalled roadways, meeting at right angles, and lined with excellent shops. In the centre of the town is a large open *chauk* or market-place. The Ganges Canal passes close to Rúrki, between high embankments. At a short distance above the town, it is carried over a lofty viaduct. Rúrki owes its chief importance to being the head-quarters of the Ganges Canal workshops and iron foundry, established in 1845-46, much extended and improved in 1852, and employing 850 hands in 1882. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, founded in 1847, for instructing natives and others in practical engineering, with a view to employment upon public works, had a total of 99 regular students in 1882. This institution is the largest and most important engineering college in India; and during its forty years of teaching may be said to have created an indigenous engineering profession. The men trained by its professors have supplied the working staff by which most of the great public works of British India have been executed. The building is spacious and handsome; and its staff is maintained at the highest point of efficiency. The students are partly English youths born in the country, partly Eurasians and natives; with special classes for soldiers, picked for their ability from the British regiments in India. The sappers and miners of the native army have been cantoned at Rúrki since 1853, and it has formed a station for British troops since 1860. The garrison numbers about 1000 men of all ranks. Church, dispensary, police station, post-office, *tahsílí*, mission school of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The low ground surrounding the town, together with the percolation from the canal, gives rise to fever and other malarious diseases; much, however, has been done to remedy this evil. Excellent meteorological observatory.

Rusera (*Roshra*).—Town and municipality in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak, just below the confluence of that river with the Bághmatí, in lat. 25° 45′ 8″ N., and long. 86° 4′ 8″ E. Population (1881) 11,578, namely, males 5534, and females 6044. Hindus number 11,196, and Muhammadans 382. Municipal income (1883-84), £519, of which £456 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9⅝d. per head. Rusera town contains a police station, distillery, and perhaps the largest *bázár* in the District; seat of a large trade in grain, oil-seeds, saltpetre, *ghí*, cloth, and other articles. An aided English school was established here in 1870. Roads run from Rusera to Dalsinhsarái, Nágarbasti, Tájpur, Baherá *viâ* Hátí, and to Darbhangah *viâ* Hathauri, and to Rájghát on the Tiljúga. Before the change in the course of the Bághmatí, direct water communication was open to Darbhangah all the year round. In

1876-77, the total registered traffic of Rusera was valued at £197,000. The principal exports were—oil-seeds, £100,000; tobacco, £15,000; and *ghí*, £12,000: the imports comprised food-grain, £9000; salt, £49,000. Owing to an alteration in the system of registration, no later statistics of trade are available.

Rushikulya.—River in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Rises in the Chinna Kimidi Málíyas, in lat. 19° 55′ 20″ N., and long. 84° 20 E., and runs south-east to Aska, where it is joined by the Mahánadi; thence south-east and east till it enters the sea at Ganjám town, in lat. 19° 22′ N., and long. 85° 7′ E. Its length is about 115 miles, the principal towns on its banks being Suradá, Aska, Purushottapur, and Ganjám. It is spanned at Aska by a fine masonry bridge of 19 arches.

Russellkonda (called after Mr. Russell, who was Commissioner here in 1835).—Town in Gumsar *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 19° 56′ 20″ N., long. 84° 37′ 34″ E. Situated on the river Loharákandi, about 50 miles north-west of Ganjám town. Population (1881) 2613, residing in 544 houses. Head-quarters of the Special Assistant Agent for the Hill Tracts, and of a *táluk* Magistrate. Court-houses, post-office, school, dispensary, public bungalow, rest-house, and prison for the hill convicts. It was at one time a military cantonment, but was abandoned in December 1863.

Rustam.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* RASTAM.

Rutlam.—State and town in the Central India Agency.—*See* RATLAM.

Rwa-taung (correctly *Ywa-taung*).—Town in Mye-deh township, Thayet-myo District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma.—*See* YWA-TAUNG.

Rwe (correctly *Ywe*).—One of the mouths of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), the chief river of Lower Burma.—*See* YWE.

Rwon-za-leng.—River in the Tenasserim Division of Lower Burma. —*See* YUN-ZA-LIN.

S.

Saádatganj.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated 14 miles north-east of Bara Banki town. Founded by Rájá Surat Singh, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár* of the *parganá* (Rámnagar), and named after the Nawáb Saádat Alí Khán, in whose reign it was built. A clean and well-built town, with a considerable trade in grain. Population (1881) 3010, namely, Hindus 1629, and Muhammadans 1381. Number of houses, 537.

Sabarhad.—Village in Khutáhan *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, North Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 1′ 10″ N., and long. 82° 44′ 21″

E., eight miles north-east of Khutáhan town. Population (1881) 2533, the prevailing class being Muhammadans. Bi-weekly markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays.

Sabari (*Seberi, Severi, Savari*).—River, rising in the Eastern Gháts, in the Native State of Jaipur (Jeypore), Madras; rushes through a rocky channel in a succession of rapids till it enters the Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces, within which its course for 25 miles is free from obstructions. It falls into the Godávari in lat. 17° 35′ N., and long. 81° 18′ E.

Sabáthu.—Cantonment in Simla District, Punjab.—*See* SUBATHU.

Sabay-yon (*Tsam-bay-run* or *Tsa bay-yún*).—Township in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. Area, 661 square miles. Population (1881) 60,508. Gross revenue, £23,330. In the south-west the country is undulating. In the north and east the land is in places swampy, and rice cultivation is carried on; in other places it is covered with tree and grass jungle, passing, near the junction of the Dagá and Shwe-nyaung rivers, into good rice land again. In the north-east corner of the township, a large area has been rendered available for rice by an embankment. This township comprises 7 revenue circles. Head-quarters at Kyún-pyaw town.

Sábhár.—Village and ruins in Dacca District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Burígangá, a tributary of the Dhaleswarí, in lat. 23° 50′ 55″ N., and long. 90° 17′ 10″ E. Formerly the capital of the Bhuiyá Rájá Harischandra. In 1839, the only trace that remained of his residence was a heap of bricks and earth overgrown with jungle. Small trade in cloth and ironware.

Sabi.—River in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* SAHIBI.

Sachín.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Surat, in Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. The villages constituting the State are much separated, some of them being surrounded by British territory, and others by portions of Baroda State. Sachín may, however, roughly speaking, be said to lie within the limits of the British District of Surat. It occupies an area of about 42 square miles, with a population (1881) of 15,721, namely, males 7371, and females 8350. Hindus number 13,214; Muhammadans, 2307; and Christians, 200. Number of houses, 3729; villages, 19. Irrigation is carried on from tanks and wells. The climate is healthy, and the usual cereals are cultivated, as well as cotton and sugar-cane. Yarn and coarse cloth are manufactured. A recently built breakwater at Dumas, and a causeway at Bhímpur, by keeping back sea-water, have contributed towards the reclamation of a considerable area of hitherto uncultivable salt land.

The Nawáb of Sachín is by descent a Habshi or Abyssinian. When his ancestors first came to India is doubtful; but they were long known on the western coast as the Sidis of Danda-Rájápur and Janjirá. They

were also the admirals of the fleets of the kings of Ahmadnagar and Bijápur, in the Deccan, whilst those dynasties lasted, and subsequently of the Mughal Emperors, being appointed to that office by Aurangzeb about 1660, with an annual assignment of £30,000 on the Surat revenues for their maintenance. On the decline of the Mughal Empire the Sidis became notorious pirates, plundering the ships of all nations, except the English, whose friendship they appear to have early cultivated. The branch of the family who had their head-quarters at the island of Janjirá remained chiefs of that place during the wars between Sivají and the Mughals, also during the war between the Peshwá and the British Government.

During these wars different members of the family were alternately supported by either party as best suited its own interests. Towards the end of the last century, Bálu Miá Sidi, the heir to the throne of Janjirá and to the other possessions of the Sidis, was expelled from his dominions by a younger branch of the family (1784–91). He appealed for aid to the Maráthás and the British. The Peshwá being desirous of obtaining Janjirá, an arrangement was come to in 1791, by which Bálu Miá ceded to the Peshwá Janjirá in return for Sachín. Bálu Miá duly got possession of his new State of Sachín; but when the Peshwá claimed Janjirá the Sidis who held it refused to give it up, and succeeded in maintaining their independence. Sachín remained in the hands of Bálu Miá and his descendants; while Janjirá is still held by the younger branch of the family who had ousted Bálu Miá, the Peshwá never having been able to establish his influence. Janjirá is reckoned a maiden fortress to this day. A full account of the transactions between the British, the Peshwá, and the rival sides of Janjirá and Sachín, will be found in Aitchison's *Treaties*, vol. iv. pp. 324 *et seq.*, ed. 1876.

The present (1883–84) chief of Sachín is Nawáb Sidi Abdul Kádar Muhammad Yákut Khán, a Sunní Musalmán, who is now a student at the Rájkumár College. During his minority the affairs of the State are administered by a British officer. The chief is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. The family hold a title authorizing adoption, and succession follows the rule of primogeniture.

The survey and land settlement of the State were completed in 1882–83. On the whole, the rates are higher than in neighbouring British villages, but much lower than the *ráyats* had hitherto paid. The gross revenue in 1883–84 amounted to £17,986, of which £12,051 was derived from the land-tax. The usual village establishments of *pátels*, *havildárs*, *vettias* are kept up, with a *faujdár* to inquire into offences. In 1883–84 the State contained 15 schools

with 944 pupils; only five villages were without schools. The average annual rainfall of the five years ending 1882–83 was 47·2 inches. The rainfall of 1883–84 was 35·7 inches.

Sachín.—Capital of Sachin State, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 3′ 40″ N., and long. 72° 59′ E., 9 miles south of Surat city. Population (1872) 722; not returned separately in the Census of 1881. Good roads connect it with Surat, with Lachpur, on the Mindhola, the former residence of the Nawábs, and with Sachín station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The town contains the palace of the Nawáb, a small fort, court-house, jail, post-office, dispensary, *dharmsála*, etc. The roads are lighted and watered.

Sádábád.—Easternmost *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; conterminous with Sádábád *parganá*. The *tahsíl* just touches on the Jumna in its south-western corner, but is intersected through its centre by the Jhirna or Kharon river, an important stream in the rains, but dry or almost so at other seasons. It drains a valley about two or three miles wide on each side, the boundary line of which is marked by denuded sandy slopes. Excepting the Jhirna valley, and the small area of Jumna ravines and *khadar* land, the *tahsíl* is extremely level and uniform. There are no other streams of any size, and *jhíls* and marshes are few. The prevailing soil is *piliya*, interspersed with tracts of *bhúr* or sand, but the total area of the latter is insignificant. There is a little *úsar* in the west of the *tahsíl*, and the patches of waste that still remain are often covered with scrub jungle, and sometimes with *dhák* trees. There is no canal irrigation, and the area irrigated from *jhíls* and ponds is insignificant, but that commanded by wells is exceptionally large. Cotton, owing to the suitability of the *piliya* soil for its growth, and the vicinity of Hathrás, the largest cotton mart in Northern India, is the crop most extensively grown. Barley, *joár*, and *arhar* are the other principal crops, and a considerable amount of hemp and indigo are also raised.

The total area of Sádábád *tahsíl* in 1881–82 was 180 square miles, of which 148 square miles were under cultivation, 19 square miles cultivable, and only 13 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 89,217, namely, males 49,110, and females 40,107; average density of population, 495 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 82,289; Muhammadans, 6598; and Jains, 330. Of the 127 towns and villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 70 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 37 between five hundred and a thousand; and 19 between one and five thousand. The only place with upwards of five thousand inhabitants was Kursanda (6018). Of the total cultivated area at the time of the recent land settlement, 25,679 acres were cultivated by proprietors themselves as *sír* or homestead lands, 27,544 acres by

tenants with occupancy rights, 45,173 acres by tenants-at-will, while 749 acres were rent-free land granted by *zámíndárs*, and 898 acres were cultivated gardens. Játs, Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Ahírs cultivate nearly the whole of the *sír* area; and from the same castes, with the addition of Chamárs and Gadariás, the tenantry is almost entirely recruited. Total Government land revenue (1881–82), £31,596, or, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £35,391. Total rental, including local rates and cesses, paid by cultivators, £46,173. The rates of rent paid by tenants-at-will are considerably higher than those paid by occupancy tenants, although the latter generally cultivate lands of a better quality; the difference in the rates being 11 per cent. in the west of the *tahsíl*, and as much as 15 per cent. in the east. Sádábád *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 1 criminal court, 2 police stations (*thánás*), a regular police force of 40 men, and a village watch or rural police of 236 *chaukídárs*.

Sádábád. — Town in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Sádábád *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 27° 26′ 13″ N., and long. 73° 4′ 42″ E., on the Jhirna stream, at the junction of four important metalled roads connecting with it Muttra town, with Jalesar road station on the East Indian Railway, and with Agra and Alígarh towns. Population (1881) 3295. Sádábád was founded by Wázír Sádullá Khán, the minister of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, in the first half of the 17th century. On the British annexation in 1803, the town became the capital of a District, and continued so till the formation of the present District of Muttra in 1832. The *tahsíl* building, which occupies the site of a fort of Himmat Bahádur, is a small but substantial building, with a deep fosse, and pierced and battlemented walls. It occupies a commanding position; and, as it is supplied with a good masonry well in the courtyard, it is probably capable of standing a siege in an emergency. Sádábád was attacked by the Ját rebels during the Mutiny, and seven lives were lost in the defence before they were repulsed. The Hindu Rájput who led the defence was rewarded by a grant of a village in Alígarh District; and two of the Ját ringleaders belonging to Kursanda were hanged. The town contains a large Hindu temple with an architectural façade, and a handsome white mosque recently erected by the leading Muhammadan landholder. A bi-weekly market is held on Tuesdays and Saturdays. Rest-house, police station, post-office, and Anglo-vernacular school. A small house-tax raised for police and conservancy purposes realized £72 in 1881–82.

Sadalgi.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency; situated 51 miles north of Belgáum town, and 25 south-east of Kolhápur, in lat. 16° 33′ N., and long. 74° 33′ E. Population (1881) 7240. Coarse waistcloths, blankets, and women's robes are woven; but the chief

industry in the town and neighbourhood is sugar-making. A large area is cultivated with sugar-cane, and a considerable quantity of molasses is prepared here. Weekly market on Tuesdays. Government vernacular school.

Sadáshivgarh (*Sadáshivgad*).—Fort in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 50′ 25″ N., and long. 74° 10′ 55″ E., on the north side of the entrance to the Kálí or Kálá river. Sadáshivgarh fort is built on a flat-topped hill 220 feet high, with a steep and inacessible face on the river side. The fortifications consist of a granite and mortar wall 20 feet high and 6 feet thick, enclosing a space of 10 acres. The wall has towers and openings for guns, and is surrounded by a moat. Except the battlements and part of the wall on the south, the whole is in fair repair. The fort has three outworks. One at the base of the south face, with its foundations under water; the second parallel to the verge of the east slope; and the third opposite the main fort, with a moat and battlements. At the southern corner of the hill are two Government bungalows.

Sadáshivgarh fort was built by a Sonda chief between 1674 and 1715. In 1752 the Portuguese declared war against the Sonda chief, and after a slight conflict carried the fort, which they greatly strengthened. In 1754 the Portuguese restored the fort to the Sonda chief. In 1763, Sadáshivgarh was taken by Haidar Alí's general, Fazl Ullá Khán. In 1783 a detachment of General Mathew's force was sent to occupy Sadáshivgarh. In 1799 it was garrisoned by Tipú's troops.

The village and port of Chitákul are situated at the foot of the hill occupied by Sadáshivgarh fort. Population (1881) 3939. Though now confined to the village itself, the name Chitákul originally included a considerable tract of land. Under the forms Sindabur, Chintabor, Cintabor, Cintapor, Cintacola, Cintacora, Chittakula, and Chitekula, the place appears in the writings of many authors, from the Arab traveller Masudi (about 900 A.D.) to the English geographer Ogilvy (about 1600). Custom-house, market, Roman Catholic church, vernacular school, old military guard-room and hospital, now used as rest-house and police station. Sadáshivgarh or Chitákul is one of the three ports of the Kárwár Customs Division. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1881–82—imports £1182, exports £8711; total, £9893. Value in 1881–82—imports £1585, exports £8772; total, £10,357.

Sádát Masonda.—Village in Jaunpur *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, 5½ miles north-east of Jaunpur town, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road. Population (1881) 2707, chiefly well-to-do Sayyid Muhammadans. Small *bázár*; tri-weekly markets on Sundays, Wednesdays, and Fridays.

Sádhaurá.—Town and municipality in Náráingarh *tahsíl*, Ambála

(Umballa) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 23′ N., and long. 77° 16′ E., near the hills, 26 miles east of Ambála city. Population (1881) 10,794, namely, males 5532, and females 5262. Muhammadans number 5847; Hindus, 4415; Sikhs, 408; and Jains, 124. Number of houses, 1756. Municipal income (1883-84), £560, or an average of 1s. 0½d. per head. A town of great antiquity, dating back to the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní, but now of no political importance. Yearly fair at the shrine of Sháh Kumais, a Muhammadan saint, lasting five days, and attended by about 20,000 persons. Manufacture of coarse cloth; local trade in country produce. Middle school.

Sadiyá.—The name formerly given to a tract of country stretching along the north bank of the Brahmaputra, on the extreme north-east frontier of Assam. The present *tháná* or police circle of Sadiyá, forming part of the Sub-division of Dibrugarh, in Lakhimpur District, has an area of 178 square miles. Population (1881) 9415, dwelling in 74 villages and 1479 houses.

Sadiyá.—Village in Lakhimpur District, Assam; situated in lat. 27° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 95° 41′ 35″ E., on the right or north bank of the main stream of the Brahmaputra, about 70 miles above Dibrugarh. Sadiyá is the extreme north-east frontier outpost of British India, and has always possessed much political importance. It is supposed to have been one of the first places occupied by the Ahams, when they invaded Assam from the direction of Burma. In later times, the government of the surrounding country was administered by a viceroy of the Aham kings, with the title of Sadiyá Khoá. When the Burmese occupied Assam, this title was conferred on a chief of the aboriginal tribe of Khámtís, whose office was confirmed on the annexation of Assam by the British in 1826. The Sadiyá Khoá furnished a military contingent of 100 men, and supported himself by forced contributions. At the same time a British garrison was stationed at Sadiyá; and subsequently, in 1835, when the exactions of the Khámtí chief became intolerable, the civil administration was placed in the hands of the officer commanding the troops. In 1839 the Khámtís rose in rebellion. They cut off the outpost at Sadiyá, and killed Major White, the commandant and Political Agent, together with the detachment of Sepoys. At this time, Sadiyá was described as an important place, with a population of 4000 souls. It dwindled gradually into a very insignificant village, but is now becoming again a flourishing seat of trade. The garrison generally consists of 1 European officer and about 150 men of one of the Assam regiments.

In order to promote friendly relations with the neighbouring hill tribes of Khámtís, Mishmís, and Singphos, a fair is held annually at the time of full moon in the end of January or beginning of February.

The hillmen bring down caoutchouc, wax, musk, cloth, mats, *dáos* or hill-knives, and ivory, which they exchange for cotton cloth, salt, metal utensils, silver ear-rings, beads, brass wire, and opium. In 1876, the attendance of hillmen was estimated at 3000; the value of the articles they sold at £4910, and the value of those they bought at £4447. Latterly, the number of visitors to the fair has fallen off considerably. This is partly due to the ill-feeling existing between the Abar and Mishmí tribes, and partly, no doubt, to the novelty of the fair having worn off. The Deputy Commissioner of Lakhimpur is generally present at this fair, and advantage is taken of the occasion to distribute presents among the chiefs.

During the rainy season, steamers can proceed up the Brahmaputra as far as Sadiyá, and it is hoped that this place may at some future day become the starting-point of a through trade with China. It is almost certain that such a trade existed in the beginning of the last century. An Assistant Political Officer has recently been stationed at Sadiyá, to conduct political relations with the frontier tribes, especially the Abars and Mishmís.

Sadras (correctly *Satranja-patana*).—Town in Chengalpat *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Situated in lat. 12° 31′ 25″ N., and long. 80° 12′ E., about 43 miles south of Madras, and connected with it by the Buckingham Canal. Population (1881) 1107, inhabiting 177 houses. Sadras first became a trading settlement of the Dutch in 1647, and was long famous for the fineness of the muslin produced by its looms. The Dutch erected, close to the shore, a brick fort of considerable extent and pretensions to strength, of which the ruins still remain. There are also the remains of the houses of the officials. The old Dutch cemetery is within the fort, and is still maintained in decent order under treaty. The tombstones are curious specimens of the sculptor's art. The date of the oldest is 1679. There is a German Lutheran Mission church on the esplanade opposite the fort, and the Wesleyan Mission have also a small settlement here. The once bustling importance of the place has long departed. There are still a few looms, but the cunning which produced the once famous fabrics is lost. The English captured Sadras in 1795; and although it was temporarily restored to the Dutch, it has been an English possession since 1824. The Pálár river, which falls into the sea a few miles to the south, has silted up, and its bar cannot be crossed by sea-going ships. Sadras is now a petty place on the coast, with the open sea outside, and has long ceased to be a resort of maritime commerce.

Sadri (Large).—Town in the State of Udaipur, Rájputána; situated 51 miles east-south-east of Udaipur city, and 23 miles south-west of Nímach. Surrounded by a stone wall much out of repair, and defended

by a small fort on the hill above, now almost in ruins. A first-class noble of the State resides here; and the town gives its name to his estate of 80 villages.

Sadri (Small).—Town in the State of Udaipur, Rájputána; situated about 62 miles east-south-east of Udaipur city, and 13 miles south-west of Nímach. The town is walled, and great quantities of bamboos and timber from the jungles to the south are brought here or sale.

Sadrpur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Biswán *tahsíl*, on the east by South Kundri *parganá*, on the south by Bara Banki District, and on the west by Mahmúdábád *parganá*. Area, 108 square miles, or 69,086 acres, of which 48,410 acres are cultivated, 11,600 acres cultivable, 133 acres rent-free, and 8943 uncultivable waste. The incidence of the land revenue demand is at the rate of 2s. 6⅞d. per acre of cultivation, 2s. 0⅞d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 10⅝d. per acre of total area. Population (1881) 50,233, namely, males 26,729, and females 23,504. The 160 villages comprising the *parganá* have been constituted into 114 demarcated *mauzás*, of which 81 are held under *tálukdárí* and 33 under *zamíndárí* tenure. Muhammadans form the principal proprietary body, owning 119 villages, Raikwárs hold 11, Seths 5, Janwár Rájputs 4, Panwárs 4, Kashmírí Brahmans 4. The remaining 23 are chiefly held by Káyasths. The *parganá* is a poor one, with only 2 villages containing upwards of 2000 inhabitants. No roads, no large *bázárs*, and no fairs.

Sadrpur.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Sadrpur *parganá*; situated 30 miles south-east of Sítápur town, but with no road or river communication with any other place. An insignificant town of (1881) 1622 inhabitants. Village school; market twice a week.

Sadullánagar.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Utraula *parganá*, from which it is separated by the Kuwána river; on the east by Burhápárá *parganá*; on the south by Manikápur *parganá*, the Bisuhi river marking the boundary line; and on the west by Gonda *parganá*. The boundary rivers are fordable every few miles, except during the rains, by men and cattle, and the more important tracks are furnished with rough bridges. Along the banks of both rivers runs a fringe of forest, varying from 3 miles to a few hundred yards in breadth, but containing little good timber. The *sál* trees, stunted by excessive crowding, never attain sufficient size to make them of any great value; and, except the *jámun*, which is plentiful and attains a fair growth, and is of use both for building and burning, the only other tree of consequence is the *mahuá*, whose flowers and fruit are leased out for the manufacture of spirits and oil, and the wood

of which is largely employed in roofing the huts of the neighbouring villages. Game is not particularly plentiful. The centre of the *parganá* is a flat ugly plain, underwooded and covered with fair cultivation, alternating with tracts of the long *khar* grass. The soil is of a light dry loam. Water may be found almost anywhere at a depth of from 15 to 20 feet from the surface, and irrigation is very common both from wells and small tanks. Area, 103 square miles; cultivated area, 38,943 acres, or 59 per cent. of the whole. Of this, 29,640 acres are under *kharíf*, 22,136 acres under *rabí*, and 12,833 under both crops, the balance being fallow. Owing to the extent of jungle, the population is, for Oudh, sparse, numbering (1881) 40,894, or 393 persons per square mile. Hindus number 30,961, and Musalmáns 9933.

Until quite lately, the greater part of the *parganá* was covered with dense jungle, the home of predatory bands; and most of the present tillage commenced with the purchase of parcels of land in *birt* from the later Rájás of Utraula. Some idea of the scantiness of the agricultural population at the commencement of the present century, when the practice of selling *birt* rights became for the first time common, may be gathered from the fact that in 1815 the Government revenue was only £69. From that time the advance becomes rapid and steady. In 1819 the demand had risen to £1331, and ten years later it reached £2406. With a few trifling variations, it remained at this amount till Rájá Darshán Singh in 1838 raised it to £3512, a figure which was never again attained under the Native Government. Shortly before annexation, it had fallen to little over £2000; and when we took over the District, Sadullánagar was assessed on the principle of half-profits at £2408. The progress of population and agriculture since that period has been exceedingly rapid; and in 1872, by a revised assessment, the Government land revenue was raised to £5607, with £152 on account of cesses. In consideration of the largeness of the enhancement, and in view of the fact that much of the land recently brought under cultivation was held on long leases at progressive rents, the increase was distributed over a period of ten years, and it was not proposed to take the full demand till 1883. Of the 112 villages in the *parganá*, 51 are held by *tálukdárs*, paying a revenue of £2924; while 61 villages, assessed at £2835, are held by *zamíndárs*.

Sadullánagar.—Village in Gonda District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Sadullánagar *parganá;* situated 28 miles north-east of Gonda town. Lat. 27° 5′ 45″ N., long. 82° 24′ 51″ E. Population (1881) 781. Founded in 1786 by Rájá Sadullá Khán of the Utraula family.

Sadullápur. — Village in Maldah District, Bengal. The chief descent or *ghát* to the holy stream of the BHAGIRATHI is at this place, to which the dead bodies of Hindus are brought from great distances

to be burned. A weekly market is held here, and a large annual religious-trading fair in March, as well as on occasions of bathing festivals throughout the year. During the Muhammadan rule at Gaur, this was the only burning *ghát* allowed for the Hindus in Maldah District. It is held in great veneration by the Hindus on account of its antiquity as a burning *ghát* and bathing place.

Sadullápur.—Village on the right bank of the Chenáb, in the Punjab, the scene of an indecisive action between our troops, under Sir John Thackwell, and the Sikh general Sher Singh, in January 1849.

Safed Koh (*Súféd Koh*, *Safaid Koh*). — Range of mountains in Afghánistán, thus described by General Sir Charles MacGregor :—

'The range commences to the east of the Allah-koh ridge, between Kábul and Ghazní, and then follows 34° of latitude for about 75 miles to longitude 70° 35′, when it splits into two main ridges, one going north-east to the Khaibar and the Kábul river ; the other, after a short turn to the east, continuing due east to the junction of the Kábul river with the Indus. During the first portion of its course, this range drains on the north into the Kábul river and on the south into the Kuram ; and it continues to do this after its separation into two branches, though not with the same regularity, some of the easternmost drainage going direct into the Indus.

'It is often of course quite arbitrary to say where one range commences and another ends, but I think in this case it will be best to say the Safed Koh commences from a few miles west of the Shutargardan Pass, between Kuram and Logar. This being the case, the first spur which it throws out to the north is that which forms the east watershed of the Logar river, and, dividing it from the Khúrd Kábul river, ends at Bhútkhak.

'The next spur is that between the Khúrd Kábul and the Tezín rivers, over which are the Haft Kotál and Lataband Passes. This Wood calls the Karkacha range, or rather he confounds two distinct spurs in one under this name ; but it may be doubted whether it would not more aptly be termed the Haft Kotál spur. Wood says that the ridge he calls the Karkacha drains west into the Logar and east into the Súrkháb ; but from Garden's surveys we now know this to be a mistake, there being two rivers—the Khúrd Kábul and Tezín—between the Logar and Súrkháb, which drain into the Kábul river, and which rise in the Safed Koh. Consequently it is an error to consider the mass of mountains between the Logar and Súrkháb one spur. After the spur between the Khúrd Kábul river and Tezín, another spur comes out from the main range, and after running north for about 30 miles to the north of Jagdalak, then turns to the east, and, running parallel with the Kábul river, ends at the junction of the Súrkháb with that river. This spur drains into the Tezín on the west and the Súrkháb on the

east, and, after its eastward bend, into the Kábul river on the north and the Súrkháb on the south.

'The other northern spurs of the Safed Koh to the east are not of so marked a character, but they run between the streams which, flowing down from it, join the Súrkháb or the Kábul river. Of these the principal are, commencing from the west, the Gandamak, Kárású, Chiprial, Hisárak, Kote, and Mohmand.

'The spurs on the south of this range are not of such importance as those on the north. The first is the one which runs out from the Shutargardan Pass, and drains on the north and east into the Hazár-darakht and Haríáb streams; on the south, into another source of the Kuram. The second is the Paiwár ridge, which comes out from the Sítárám Peak and ends at the Kuram, draining into the Keria and Haríáb rivers on the west and the Paiwár on the east. Then again, to the east there are numerous short spurs, which shoot down to the south but do not reach the river, save in the form of detritus. These need not be mentioned further; and the only other spur requiring notice is the one which, coming out somewhat to the east of longitude 70° 30′, runs between the Kirmán Dára and the Kirmán stream.

'Wood places the western limit of the Safed Koh at long. 69° 36′ E., thus regarding its commencement as at very nearly the same point as I do—viz. just east of the Altimúr Pass over the Allah-koh range, in long. 69° 30′ E.

'Judging from the accounts of Wood, Bellew, and Walker, the scenery would seem to be equal in grandeur and beauty on both sides of the range; and Wood in his description of the northern side falls into an error, when he says that looking towards the summit there are successive ranges, for the main range runs east and west, and throws its spurs to the north and south. Wood says the farthest peaks are bare and irregular, the nearest covered with pine-trees; and this tallies with the graphic description given by Bellew of its south aspect.

'Col. Walker says of the range—"Its highest point is the Sítárám Mountain, 15,622 feet above the sea, whence the range preserves a tolerably uniform level, perhaps nowhere less than 12,500 feet, until it again culminates in a double-peak mountain, whose summits average 14,800 feet. I have been unable to learn the local names of these peaks, or whether, like the Sítárám Mountain, they tell of a remote antiquity, when the country was ruled by Hindus long anterior to the origin of Muhammadanism. The offshoots of this range (*i.e.* the branches east of long. 70° 30′ E.) have usually an east and west direction, and are remarkable for their parallelism with each other and with the parent range. The most important, though not the highest, of these stretches away to Attock, and is the southern boundary of the Pesháwar valley, dividing it from the system of valleys of which Kohát District is composed.

Before entering British territory, it forms the southern barrier of the Tírah valley." '

According to Sir C. MacGregor, the low hills of Jalalábád (ends of the north spurs of the Safed Koh) are barren, but the lofty ranges of Kund, Karkacha, and Safed Koh are richly clad with pine, almond, and other trees. The appearance, he continues, of the valleys of the Safed Koh is a mixture of orchard, field, and garden. They abound in mulberry, pomegranate, and other fruit-trees; while the banks of their streams are edged with a fine sward, enamelled with a profusion of wild-flowers, and fringed by rows of weeping willows.

'It is worthy of note that the Safed Koh presents in its south aspect the same glacis slopes of shingle which were observed by Griffiths on the south slopes of the spurs of the Hindu Kúsh, and which may also be noticed on parts of the hills north of the Pesháwar valley. No mention is made by any authority of this peculiarity existing on the north of this range, or, I believe, of any other range.'

Saffrái.—River in Assam, rising in the Nágá Hills, and falling into the Disang river in Sibságar District, after a course of about 8½ miles. Coal deposits exist near the source of the river, but the difficulties in the way of procuring labour and transport have, up to the present, prevented their being worked. Several tea-gardens are situated on the banks or in the vicinity of the river, which is navigable for boats of 50 *maunds*, or about two tons burthen, during the rainy season as far as the Dhodar Ali road.

Safipur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Unao District, Oudh, lying between 26° 37′ and 27° 2′ N. lat., and between 80° 6′ and 80° 30′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Bílgrám and Sandíla *tahsíls* of Hardoi District, on the east by Mohan *tahsíl* of Unao, on the south by Unao *tahsíl*, and on the west by Cawnpur District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 395 square miles, of which 231 are cultivated. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 194,001, of whom 169,733 are Hindus, and 24,254 Muhammadans. Number of males, 102,889; of females, 91,112; number of villages or towns, 373; average density of population, 491 persons per square mile. This *tahsíl* comprises the three *parganás* of Safipur, Fatehpur Chaurási, and Bángarmau. In 1883 it contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 47 men; rural police or village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 634.

Safipur.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sandíla *parganá* of Hardoi District, from which it is separated by the Sái river; on the east by Asíwán Rasúlábád; on the south by Pariar; and on the east by Fatehpur Chaurási. Area, 132 square miles, or 84,530 acres, divided into 137 townships. A well-wooded country. Soil chiefly loam and clay; staple crop, barley. Government revenue

£10,567, at an average rate of 2s. 6d. per acre. Population (1881) 68,258, namely, males 35,811, and females 32,447. Hindus number 59,151; Muhammadans, 9093; and 'others,' 14. The extent of land held under the different varieties of tenure is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 4249 acres; *pukhtadárí*, 240 acres; *pattidárí*, 37,168 acres; *zamíndárí*, 36,181 acres; *bháyáchára*, 5531 acres; and Government villages, 1158 acres. Four large annual fairs, at one of which 15,000 persons assemble.

Safipur (or *Sáipur*).—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Safipur *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated in lat. 26° 44′ 10″ N., and long. 80° 23′ 15″ E., 17 miles north-west of Unao town, on the road leading thence to Hardoi. A flourishing, well-built town, containing 89 masonry houses, 14 mosques, and 6 Hindu temples. Population (1881) 7031, namely, Hindus, 4137; Musalmáns, 2880; and 'others,' 14. Daily market, with sales averaging £5500 a year. Flourishing school; police station. The town is said to have been originally founded by Sái Sukal, a Bráhman, and is generally called after him, Sáipur. A religious mendicant subsequently came to the town, and was buried there, and the name was changed to Safipur in commemoration of the holy man. Sái Sukal is said to have been defeated and killed in 1389 by Ibráhím of Jaunpur, who put his lieutenants in charge of the town, and whose descendants are the principal proprietors at the present day.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 23° 4′ and 24° 27′ N. lat., and between 78° 6′ and 79° 12′ E. long. Area, 4005 square miles. Population in 1881, 564,950 souls. Ságar is a District of the Jabalpur Division, lying in the extreme north-west of the Central Provinces. It is bounded on the north by Lálitpur District of the North-Western Provinces and the Native States of Bijáwar, Panná, and Charkhárí; on the east by Panná and Damoh District; on the south by Narsinghpur District and the Native States of Bhopál; and on the west by Bhopál and Gwalior States. The administrative head-quarters are at SAGAR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Ságar occupies, with that of Damoh, the high Vindhyan table-land which stretches out in the north-west corner of the Central Provinces. The scarp of the Bhánrer range, rising abruptly from the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), forms a natural boundary line, from which the District extends northwards in a vast plain broken here and there by hills, with a general slope towards the north-east. So, too, east of Ságar town the boundary is marked by a clear escarpment, but to the north and west no salient physical feature indicates the limits of the District.

The country is for the most part covered with trap; but on the

north, the Vindhyan sandstone runs down, broadening out opposite Kurái and gradually disappearing southwards; and on the east, the sandstone occupies a tract about 20 miles long and 5 broad, reaching from Garhákota to beyond Surkhí. Garhákota itself and a narrow strip of country as far south as Rehlí rest on limestone. The form of the trap hills distinguishes them at once from the inlying hills of sandstone; their vegetation is also distinct, and the teak saplings which flourish on the trap rarely grow on the sandstone. The soil in the north and east of the District is a reddish-brown alluvium. The south and centre are covered with black soil, on which wheat is grown in large quantities. But the cultivated plains are broken up by hills, rising singly or in groups, and by small ranges and plateaux, some of them covered with jungle, others stony and barren.

The principal streams are the Sunár, Beas (Biás), Dhúpán, and Bíná, all flowing in a northerly direction towards the valley of the Ganges. Ságar, however, contains no river of importance. Though several densely wooded tracts exist in the District, they yield no great quantity of the finer sorts of timber. The largest forest, the Ramná, a preserve to the north-east of Garhákota, covering 8 square miles, produces teak and *sáj*. Smaller forests to the south of the District, as Mohli near Rehlí, and Tarhá Kíslí near Deorí, supply teak, *sáj*, and bamboos. Towards the north, in Sháhgarh, lie large tracts of wooded country, comprising *mahuá* and *sáj*, with some teak, and bamboos in abundance. About 2 square miles of this region form the Tigorá reserve. The mineral wealth of the District is insignificant; but iron-ore, of excellent quality, found near Hírápur, a small village in the extreme north-east, affords occupation to a few smelting furnaces of the rudest character. In many parts, also, sandstone, well suited for building purposes, abounds.

History.—The formation of Ságar into a District rests on no historical considerations. Until quite recent times, semi-independent rulers of small tracts have co-existed at various places; and while the southern half was governed from Rehlí, the northern half was subject to Dhámoní or Sháhgarh. Rehlí, a village situated on elevated ground about 26 miles south-east of Ságar town, appears to have been originally held by the Gonds, to whom succeeded a race of shepherds, known as Baladeos. The Baladeos first settled at Khamaria, a village a mile off, but in time they removed to Rehlí, where they built a fort. The place next passed into the hands of Rájá Chhatar Sál, the Bundelá chief of Panná, who made it over to Bájí Ráo Peshwá, in return for assistance in a war with the Subáh of Farukhábád. The Peshwá built the fort which now exists. The town of Ságar, after a similar history, at this time formed part of the dominions of Chhatar Sál. That chieftain died in 1735; and in addition to his previous gift to the Peshwá, left him

one-third of his kingdom, including Ságar town and a considerable portion of the present District. The territory thus acquired continued to be managed by agents of the Peshwá until 1818, when, on the downfall of the Peshwá's government, the southern part of Ságar District came under British rule.

The country to the north appears to have belonged to the great Gond kingdom of Mandla; and Dhámoní, 28 miles north of Ságar town, owes its origin to a scion of that line, named Surat Sá. About the end of the 16th century, Rájá Barsingh Deva, the Bundelá chief of the neighbouring State of Orchhá, defeated Surat Sá; and made Dhámoní the capital, from which he ruled the northern part of the District. His son Pahár Singh continued in power till 1619, when the country became a portion of the Delhi Empire. During the eighty years of Muhammadan rule which followed, Garola, Kurái, and Khimlása rose to be places of importance. A succession of five governors from Delhi administered Northern Ságar, until about 1700, at the time of the decline of the Mughal Empire, the last of them, Nawáb Ghárat Khán, was defeated by Chhatar Sál, who thus for a short time united nearly the whole of the District under one rule. Dhámoní remained under his descendants until 1802, when Umráo Singh, Rájá of the neighbouring village of Patan, gained the fort by treachery. Six months, however, had not passed when he was himself defeated by the army of the Rájá of Nágpur, who annexed the country. In 1818, after the flight of Apá Sáhib, Dhámoní was taken by a British force under General Marshall.

Though Sháhgarh, 40 miles north-east of Ságar, came under British rule at a later period, its history is similar to that of Dhámoní. Originally part of the Gond kingdom of Mandlá, Sháhgarh also was seized by a Bundelá chieftain, Sháhman, who about 1650 killed Chintáman, the last Gond ruler. The line of Sháhman ended in 1798, when his descendant Khánjú was defeated by Mardan Singh, Rájá of Garhákota. In 1842, the son of Mardan Singh was succeeded by a nephew named Bakht Balí. This year was signalized by the outbreak known as the Bundelá insurrection. Jawáhir Singh of Chandrapur, being sued on account of decrees of the Civil Court, broke into open rebellion, and burned and plundered the towns of Khimlása, Kurái, Naraolí, Dhámoní, and Bináiká. On hearing this, Delan Sá, a Gond chief living in the south of the District, also rose, and plundered Deorí and the surrounding country. The insurrection was quelled in the following year, chiefly through the efforts of Captain Hamilton; and Lord Ellenborough broke up the administration of the Ságar and Narbadá territories, and reorganized it on an entirely new footing.

In 1857 occurred the great rebellion, which led to the downfall of the Rájás of Sháhgarh. In June, when the Mutiny began, the regiments

stationed at Ságar were the 31st Native Infantry, commanded by Major Hampden, and the 42nd, commanded by Colonel Dalzell, with the 3rd Irregular Cavalry, and a few European gunners. The entire force was under the command of Brigadier Sage. On the 27th June, the officers, with the European artillery and residents of the station, by order of the Brigadier moved into the fort, taking all the arms they could collect, and the treasure from the District office. Shortly afterwards, the 42nd and the cavalry mutinied, and burned a good many houses, besides seizing all the treasure that had been left. The 31st, however, remained loyal, and made a demonstration against the mutineers, many of whom made off towards Sháhgarh. When the news of the rising got abroad, Mardan Singh, Rájá of Bhánpur, took possession of the present Subdivision of Kurái; Bakht Balí, the Rájá of Sháhgarh, seized Bandá, Rehlí, and Garhákota; and Adíl Muhammad, Nawáb of Garhí Amápání, occupied Ráhatgarh. In fact, these three divided the whole District between them. For eight months, affairs remained in this state; and while the fort and town of Ságar were held by the Europeans, the whole surrounding country was in possession of the rebels. The latter never attacked the fort, and three engagements with the English forces at Ságar proved indecisive. At length, in February 1858, Sir Hugh Rose arrived with the Central India Field Force at Ráhatgarh, where, after totally defeating Adíl Muhammad, he took and partially destroyed the fort. He next defeated the troops of Mardan Singh at Barodiá Naunagar, and having cleared the country round Ráhatgarh and Kurái, marched to Ságar. Sir Hugh Rose then advanced to Garhákota, where he routed the followers of the Rájá of Sháhgarh, and seized the fort, in which the rebels had left a large quantity of treasure. Soon after, he met the remainder of Bakht Balí's forces at Madanpur, and defeated them with great slaughter. By the beginning of March 1858, order was re-established throughout the District. The dominions of the Rájá of Sháhgarh were confiscated, and a portion of them added to the District of Ságar. Bakht Balí gave himself up, under the amnesty, at Maraurá, and was sent as a State prisoner to Lahore.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Ságar at 498,642. The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 527,725; while the last enumeration in 1881 returned 564,950, showing an increase of 37,225, or 7·05 per cent., in nine years, of which 2·83 per cent. represents the excess of registered births over deaths, while the remainder may be assigned to immigration. The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 4005 square miles; towns 5, and villages 1837; number of houses, 155,711, namely, occupied 130,409, and unoccupied 25,302. Total population, 564,950, namely, males 294,795, and females 270,155; proportion of males, 52·2 per cent. Average density of

population, 141 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, ·46; persons per town or village, 307; houses per square mile, 32·56; persons per occupied house, 4·33. Classified according to sex and age, there are—under 15 years of age, males 114,422, and females 102,481; total children, 216,903, or 38·5 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 180,373, and females 167,674; total adults, 348,047, or 61·5 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population of Ságar District consists of—Hindus, 498,071, or 88·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 25,396, or 4·5 per cent.; Jains, 16,432, or 2·9 per cent.; Kabírpanthís, 4606; Satnámís, 245; Christians, 1034; Pársís, 15; Sikhs, 5; Buddhists 2; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 19,144, or 3·4 per cent. of the population. The total aboriginal population by race, as apart from religion, however, is returned at 45,699, or 8·1 per cent., consisting almost entirely of Gonds (29,407) and Saurás (16,109).

Among the recognised Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 45,408; Rájputs, 18,417; Bháts, 1983; Káyasths, 5453; and Baniyás, 6301. The lower-class Hindus, who comprise the great mass of the population, include the following castes—Chamár, 66,637; Lodhí, 45,053; Kachhí, 42,888; Ahír, 30,197; Kurmí, 25,921; Chandál, 14,757; Telí, 14,299; Nái, 13,580; Korí, 12,545; Dhimár, 12,203; Lohár, 9470; Basor, 9249; Kumbhár, 8514; Dhobí, 7844; Barhái, 6018; Sonár, 5233; Gadáriá, 3807; Kallár, 3626; Darzí, 3696; Málí, 1464; and Koshti, 1147. The Muhammadan population, classified according to sect, comprise—Sunnís, 23,960; Shiás, 503; Wahábís, 14; and unspecified, 919. Of 1034 Christians, Europeans number 530; Eurasians, 56; Natives of India, 410; and unspecified, 38. By sect, Roman Catholics number 469; Church of England, 427; Presbyterians, 85; Lutherans, 13; Wesleyans, 4; others and unspecified, 36. A station of the Lutheran Mission was established at Ságar in 1878.

The best cultivators are the Kurmís, who immigrated from the Doáb about the beginning of the 17th century; and the Lodhís, who made their way to the Vindhyan table-land during the time of Aurangzeb. Though not tall, the inhabitants of Ságar are for the most part a sturdy race. The simple white cloth made in the country forms the dress in the hot season of the poorer classes. In the cold weather, they wear a thick cotton-padded coat, reaching below the knees. The favourite colour is the green *mahuá*, more particularly in the north of the District bordering on Bundelkhand, where green is regarded as the national colour. Cloth dyed with *ál* or madder is also much worn, especially by females. In the south, the population are peaceful and tractable. But towards the north, their character undergoes a change for the worse; and the Korís, a small caste dwelling on the borders near Native States, where they find protection if pressed by the police,

share with another caste called Khangars a notoriety for crime. No explanation can be given of the fact that Ságar contains more than one-third of the total number of the Jains in the Central Provinces. The prevailing language is Hindí, but Urdu is also spoken.

Town and Rural Population.—Ságar District contains five towns with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, namely, SAGAR, population (1881) 44,416; GARHAKOTA, 11,414; DEORI, 7414; KHURAI, 5370; and REHLI, 5230. The urban population thus disclosed amounts to 73,844, or 13·1 per cent. of the District total. The foregoing towns are municipalities, with a total income in 1882–83 of £7491, of which £5872 was derived from taxation, mainly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7d. per head of the population within municipal limits. The 1837 villages below five thousand inhabitants are thus classified—1024 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 575 between two and five hundred; 174 between five hundred and a thousand; 53 between one and two thousand; 10 between two and three thousand; and 1 between three and five thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional, military, and official class, 7850; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 3686; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 6861; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 98,488; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 46,590; and (6) indefinite, non-productive, and unspecified class, comprisng general labourers and male children, 28,314.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4005 square miles, only 1396 square miles were cultivated in 1883–84, while of the portion lying waste, 1220 square miles were returned as cultivable and 1389 square miles as uncultivable; 4519 acres were irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. Of the total area, however, 1007 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 2998 square miles liable to Government assessment, of which 1412 square miles were cultivated in 1883–84; 940 square miles were available for cultivation, and 646 square miles uncultivable. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, grown in 1883 on 527,424 acres. Rice was grown on only 11,084 acres, while other food-grains were grown on 236,414 acres. Oil-seeds occupied 69,524 acres; cotton, 32,705 acres; and sugar-cane, 3784 acres. The agricultural stock in 1883–84 consisted of—Cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 289,379; horses, 4635; ponies, 14,024; donkeys, 3086; sheep and goats, 29,897; and pigs, 5502; while carts numbered 20,037, and ploughs 56,049. Cattle and buffaloes are bred to a large extent in the District, both for draught and carriage, and also for dairy purposes, especially the manufacture of *ghí;* and lately some bulls have been imported from Hissár and Mysore,

to improve the indigenous breed. The stock of sheep is small, and insufficient even for home consumption. The Chamárs and Gonds eat flesh when they get it, and are not particular about its condition. Wheat, barley, and *dál* form the food of the richer inhabitants; the poorer classes content themselves with *bájra*, *kodo*, *kutkí*, and often in seasons of scarcity subsist on the *mahuá* and other jungle fruits.

Of the adult male and female agricultural population in 1881 (namely 149,732), 7749 were returned as landed proprietors, 29,456 as tenants possessing rights of occupancy, 41,526 as tenants-at-will, 15,638 as assistants in home cultivation, 5991 as agricultural labourers, while the remainder is made up of graziers, tenants of unspecified status, estate agents, etc. Area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 11·3 acres. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land in 1883 are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 3s. 10½d.; inferior grains, 2s. 1½d.; oil-seeds, 2s. 7½d.; cotton, 2s. 7d.; rice, 4s. 9d.; sugar-cane, 5s. 9d. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £47,339, or an average of 1s. 0½d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £116,000, or an average of 2s. 5½d. per cultivated acre. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 4s. 2d.; linseed, 9s. 9d.; cotton, 30s. 9d.; rice, 9s. 6d.; sugar (*gúr*), 12s. 3d. The wages per diem for skilled labour averaged 9d.; for unskilled labour, 3¾d.

Commerce and Trade.—Ságar is not the seat of any important manufacture. Large cattle fairs are held weekly at Kurái, and once a year at Garhákota. The other principal fairs take place at Bhápel, Pandalpur, and Rangír. The iron-ore, smelted near Hírápur, goes principally to Cawnpur; but the chief export of the District consists of grain sent to Karelí and other stations on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, for conveyance to Bombay. Principal imports—sugar and *kirána*, or grocery, from Mírzápur; and English cloth and piece-goods from Mírzápur, and from Bombay by way of Karelí. The town of Ságar was formerly the entrepôt of the salt trade with Rájputána. In 1883, 50 miles of made roads within the District were returned as of the 'first' class, 63 of the 'second,' and 21 of the 'third' class. The main lines of communication are—the road from Jabalpur *viâ* Damoh to Ságar, and thence *viâ* Ráhatgarh towards Indore, with travellers' bungalows at Ságar and Ráhatgarh; the road from Gwalior *viâ* Jhánsí and Lálitpur to Ságar, and thence towards Narsinghpur; the road from Ságar in a north-easterly direction towards Cawnpur, with a travellers' bungalow at Sháhgarh; and the road from Ságar in a north-westerly direction to Sironj in Sindhia's territory, and Mhow *viâ* Kurái. None of these roads is bridged and metalled throughout. A road connecting Ságar with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway at Karelí, and crossing

the Narbadá (Nerbudda) at the Birmán Ghát, has been recently opened for traffic, and now forms the chief line of communication in the District. The District has no means of communication by water or rail.

Administration.—In 1861, Ságar was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1883–84, £68,376, of which the land yielded £44,429. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £7586: number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 12; magistrates, 10: maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 28 miles; average distance, 26 miles: number of police, District and town, 715, being 1 policeman to every 5·6 square miles and every 785 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1883 was 127, of whom 13 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection in 1883–84 was 92, attended by 6145 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 5625 boys and 592 girls as under instruction; besides 14,199 males and 416 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—Through the greater part of the District the climate is considered moderate. Temperature in the shade in 1883 at the civil station—May, highest reading 111·5° F., lowest 67° F.; July, highest 91·5° F., lowest 71° F.; December, highest 79° F., lowest 44° F. The average annual rainfall is 45·7 inches, but in 1883 only 32·66 inches fell. Storms are rarely of such severity as to injure the crops. The prevalent disease of the District is an intermittent fever, which comes on after the rains, especially during the month of October. Bowel complaints also cause many deaths. In 1883, eight charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 57,402 in-door and out-door patients. The reported death-rate in the same year amounted to 36·68 per thousand of the population, as against an average of 40·80 per thousand for the previous five years. [For further information regarding Ságar, see the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Grant (Nágpur, 1870); also the *Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Ságar District*, 1856–1866, by Lieut.-Colonel J. N. H. Maclean (published 1867); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government.]

Ságar (*Saugor*).—The central *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 5′ and 23° 56′ N. lat., and between 78° 37′ and 79° 21′ E. long. Area, 1067 square miles, with 1 town and 497 villages, and 46,640 houses. Population (1881) 196,980, namely, males 102,017, and females 94,963;

average density of population, 184·6 persons per square mile. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 36,490, with an average area of 13 acres of cultivated and cultivable land to each. Of the total area of the *tahsíl* (1067 square miles), 158 square miles are held revenue-free, while 909 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 433 square miles are cultivated, 242 square miles available for cultivation, and 234 square miles uncultivated waste. Total amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses, £16,363, or an average of 1s. 2⅛d. per cultivated acre; amount of rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £34,592, or an average of 2s. 4¾d. per cultivated acre. Ságar *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 6 civil and 9 criminal courts (including the District head-quarter courts), with 4 police circles (*thánás*), and 9 outpost stations (*chaukís*), a regular police force numbering 118 men, and a village watch or rural police of 452 *chaukídárs*.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—Principal town and head-quarters of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 49′ 50″ N., long. 78° 48′ 45″ E. Ságar stands 1940 feet above sea-level, on the borders of a fine lake nearly a mile broad, from which it derives its name. The lake is said to be an ancient Banjára work; but the present city is only about two centuries old, and owes its rise to a Bundelá Rájá, who built a small fort on the site of the present structure in 1660, and founded a village called Parkotá, now a quarter of the modern town. Ságar was next held by Chhatar Sál, and formed part of the territory left by him on his death to his ally the Peshwá. Govind Pandit was appointed by the Peshwá to administer the country; and his descendants continued to manage it till shortly before it was ceded to the British Government by Peshwá Bájí Ráo in 1818. During this period the town was twice plundered by Amír Khán and his army, and again by Sindhia in 1804. During the Mutiny of 1857, the town and fort were held by the English for eight months, during which time the whole of the surrounding country was in possession of the rebels, until the arrival of Sir Hugh Rose.

Ságar town is well built, with wide streets; and the large bathing *gháts* on the banks of the lake, for the most part surrounded with Hindu temples, add much to its appearance. Ságar was formerly the entrepôt of the salt trade with Rájputána, and still carries on a large trade with Mírzápur, importing sugar and *kirána*, or grocery, besides English cloth. Population (1881) 44,416, namely, males 22,556, and females 21,860. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 32,490; Muhammadans, 8992; Jains, 1144; Kabírpanthís, 699; Satnámís, 88; Christians, 975; Pársís, 15; Sikhs, 4; and non-Hindu aborigines, 9. Municipal income (1882–83), £4377, of which £3892 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9d. per head.

The existing fort at Ságar was completed by the Maráthás about a century ago, on an older site. It stands on a height north-west of the lake, commanding the whole of the city and surrounding country, and consists of 20 round towers, varying from 20 to 40 feet in height, connected by thick curtain walls. It encloses a space of 6 acres, for the most part covered with old Maráthá buildings two storeys high. The British Government have constructed a magazine, a large building now used for medical stores, and a barrack for the European guard. The only entrance is on the east side. In 1820, a large building was erected for a mint, about a mile east of the lake, where 400 men were employed in coining; but after ten or twelve years, the business was transferred to Calcutta. The building is now used as the *tahsíli*, and as the office of the Executive Engineer. Other edifices of importance are a large castellated jail, capable of containing 500 prisoners, situated about half a mile east of the lake, and built in 1846 at a cost of £5000; the Deputy Commissioner's Court, on a hill overlooking the city and lake, built about 1820; the Sessions Court-house, a little to the north, built in 1863 at a cost of £500; and the city *kotwáli* or station-house, under the western walls of the fort, built in 1856. Ságar had formerly a high school, affiliated to the Calcutta University, established about 1828 by Captain James Paton, of the Bengal Artillery, with the assistance of Ráo Krishna Ráo, a Maráthá gentleman. The high school has since been removed to Jabalpur, and has been replaced by a *zilá* school. The town also contains a vernacular middle-class school, several indigenous schools, and 5 girls' schools. In 1862, an unhealthy swamp lying north-east of the lake, which cut off the quarter called Gopálganj from the rest of the city, was converted into a large garden, with numerous drives and a piece of ornamental water, at a cost of £3000. The civil station begins with the mint, about a mile east of the lake, and extends northwards for a mile, till joined by the military cantonments, which extend in a north-easterly direction for 2½ miles, with the church in the centre. Before the Mutiny, the cantonments were exclusively garrisoned by Native troops, with a detail of European artillery. Since then, however, a European regiment and two batteries of European artillery, with a Native regiment of cavalry and one of infantry, have been stationed at Ságar. The fort contains a large magazine, and depôt of medical stores.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—Island at the mouth of the Húglí river, Bengal. Lat. 21° 35′ 30″ to 21° 56′ 30″ N., long. 88° 4′ 30″ to 88° 14′ E. A great fair is held on the island about the middle of January, to which a large gathering of pilgrims, mostly women, from all parts of Bengal, with some from other parts of India, resort to wash away their sins in the waters of the holy stream. The religious ceremonies last for three

days, but the fair is continued for a longer period; a considerable trade is carried on in articles brought from Calcutta, mats from Eastern Bengal, and stoneware platters and cups principally from Chutiá Nágpur. At other times the island is very sparsely inhabited, though it is said to have been once well peopled. A writer in the *Calcutta Review* even asserts that 'two years before the foundation of Calcutta it contained a population of 200,000 persons, who in one night, in 1688, were swept away by an inundation.' Ságar Island has now been partially reclaimed, but the greater part is still covered with dense jungle, and infested by tigers and other wild beasts. Many attempts have been made to cultivate it, but until recently with small success. The Board of Revenue tried in 1813 to lease it to natives, but the attempt failed, and the island was subsequently taken over by an association, composed of Europeans and natives, rent-free for thirty years, and at a quit-rent of 1s. 6d. per acre thereafter. Previous to this, the island had been surveyed (1812) and found to contain 143,265 acres of dry land. Sub-leases were afterwards granted to several persons, but their efforts to clear the land were ineffectual.

During the years 1875–77, six allotments in the island were leased out by Government for a period of years free of revenue, on condition that special protective works against inundation, to be approved by Government, should be constructed and maintained by the grantees. The works have been carried out, and cultivation is once more spreading over these lands, which still form the subject of an annual inquiry.

Salt manufacture was conducted on the island for some time, but has been almost discontinued.

The only buildings of any importance in Ságar Island are the lighthouse, which was commenced as long ago as 1808, and the telegraph office at the north of the island. The Meteorological Department has an observatory on the south-west extremity of the island. The telegraph station lies below high-water mark, and is protected by a strong dyke. The average rainfall for the fifteen years ending 1881 was 73·85 inches. The cyclone of 1864 caused enormous destruction and loss of life on Ságar Island. The storm-wave, 11 feet above the level of the land, swept over the island with resistless force. At first it was reported that 90 per cent. of the population had perished; but it was afterwards ascertained that 1488 persons survived on the island out of a population, before the cyclone, of 5625.

Ságar.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, 663 square miles, of which 83, including *ináms*, are cultivated. Population (1871) 60,231; (1881) 59,210, namely, males 32,237, and females 26,973. Hindus number 54,277; Muhammadans, 1621; Jains, 3190; and Christians, 122. Land revenue (1881), excluding local cesses, £21,196; assessment per cultivated acre, 7s. 10½d. Ságar *táluk*

occupies the most westerly portion of Mysore, broken by the spurs of the Gháts, and in parts only 8 miles distant from the sea. A great part of the area is overgrown with heavy timber-trees, interspersed with grassy glades, amid which wander herds of bison and wild elephant. Products—areca-nut, rice, pepper, and cardamoms.

Ságar.—Municipal town in Shimoga District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 14° 9′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 4′ 20″ E., on the left bank of the Varada river, 40 miles west-north-west of Shimoga town. Head-quarters of Ságar *táluk*. Population (1881) 2284; municipal revenue (1881–82), £223; rate of taxation, 1s. 11½d. per head. A centre of the areca-nut trade, and the residence of some wealthy merchants. Areca-nut, pepper, sandal-wood, and products of the highlands are exchanged for cotton cloth and other articles from the seaboard.

Ságargarh (*Ságargad* or the 'Sea Fort').—Fortified hill and health resort in Kolába District, Bombay Presidency. Situated 19 miles south of Bombay city, and 6 east of Alíbágh, 1357 feet above sea-level. The spur on which Ságargarh fort is built holds a somewhat central position in the range of hills that forms the backbone of Alíbágh Sub-division. On the east, south, and north it rises steeply from the forests and rice lands below. To the north-west and west, beyond a narrow neck, it stretches a bare waving hill-top about two miles long and half a mile to a mile broad. Its height and nearness to the sea make it pleasantly cool during the latter part of the hot weather. There are two main roads to Ságargarh from the east and from the west. From the citadel the chief view is the sea to the north-west, west, and south-west. To the south is a rice plain; and beyond the plain rise the bare Cheul hills. To the north stretches the Bombay harbour, the Prongs lighthouse, and Kolába. The chief buildings on the hill are two European bungalows.

Sagrí.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the river Gogra, and comprising the four *parganás* of Sagrí, Gopálpur, Ghosi, and Nathúpur. The greater part of the country consists of good *bángar* land; but the *kachhár* country, inundated by the Gogra and the Little Sarju or Tons, constitutes a considerable portion of its area, chiefly in the centre and the north-east. Gopálpur and Sagrí *parganás* in the west are watered by the Little Sarju; and in the eastern half of the *tahsíl* there are a few streams which feed several large lakes or marshes, of which the principal are the Pakri Pewá Tál in Ghosi, and the Ratoi Tál in Nathúpur *parganá*. Only about one-fourth of the cultivated area in Gopálpur and Sagrí *parganás* is rice land. In the *bángar* country, all kinds of spring crops can be raised. In the saturated *kachhár* tracts, a peculiar crop is a variety of rice known as *sokan*, which seems unable to grow elsewhere. Peas, vetches, and other *rabí* crops are grown after

the rice crop has been harvested. In the tracts nearest the rivers, barley and peas, and in places sugar-cane, are grown; but the other *kharíf* crops, owing to the liability to injury from floods, rarely turn out well. Throughout the *kachhár*, the swamps and old beds of the Gogra and Little Sarju are filled with *tinni* or wild rice. In the *bángar* the usual *rabí* crops are grown along with sugar-cane, which is not, however, so profitable a crop here as elsewhere. A little poppy is grown in favourable places throughout the *tahsíl.* The chief markets are the Nainijor and Chapri *bázárs* on the Gogra, which, during the rainy season, are moved, the former to Bábá-ka-bázár, and the latter to Ausánpur, both on the south bank of the Little Sarju. Considering the nature of the tract, and the difficulties it presents, the *tahsíl* is fairly supplied with communications. The Azamgarh-Gorakhpur and Ghází-pur-Gorakhpur first-class roads pass through the centre of the *tahsíl*, meeting at Doharighát on the Gogra. The Azamgarh-Faizábád second-class road skirts the west of the *tahsíl*, through Sagrí and Gopálpur *parganá.* There are numerous third-class roads which join the above, and connect the larger towns and villages.

The total area of Sagrí *tahsíl* in 1881–82 was 592 square miles, of which 362 square miles were cultivated, 97 square miles cultivable, and 123 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 447,455, namely, males 226,037, and females 221,418; average density of population, 769 persons per square mile. Hindus number 395,737, and Muhammadans 51,718. Of the 1312 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 1072 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 162 between five hundred and a thousand; 63 between one and two thousand; and 14 between two and five thousand. The only place with upwards of five thousand inhabitants is Dúbárí (7502). Of the total cultivated area, about 49 per cent. in Sagrí and Gopálpur, and 38 per cent. in Ghosí and Nathúpur, is cultivated by the proprietors as *sír* or homestead land. The tenant population is chiefly low caste, nearly all the high-caste landholders having retained their proprietary rights. In Sagrí and Gopálpur the average area of holdings held by tenants with occupancy rights is 2½ acres, and of tenants-at-will 1½ acres. In Ghosí and Nathúpur the average holdings are 3½ acres by tenants with occupancy rights, and less than 2 acres by tenants-at-will. Total Government land revenue (1881–82), £42,293, or including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £50,259. Amount of rental paid for cultivators, including rates and cesses, £91,719. Sagrí *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 1 criminal court, 7 police stations (*thánás*), a regular police force of 84 men, and a village watch or rural police of 694 *chaukídárs.*

Sáh.—Large village in Gházipur *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 52′ 55″ N., and long. 80° 45′ 46″ E., 7 miles from Fatehpur town, and 5 miles from Gházipur.

Population (1881) 3385, principally Ahírs. Old fort, said to have been built by a Bais Rájput; post-office, school, and bi-weekly market.

Sahár.—Town in Chháta *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 37′ 45″ N., and long. 27° 37′ 45″ E., on the left bank of the Agra Canal, 7 miles south of Chháta town. Population (1881) 2776. Sahár was the seat of Thákur Badan Singh, the father of Suraj Mall, the first of the Bhartpur Rájás, who built for himself a handsome residence here, now to a great extent in ruins. The town contains several old houses with carved stone gateways, of some architectural pretensions. A number of handsomely carved pillars, the remains of an ancient temple, have been dug up, and are now in the Muttra Museum. A weekly market is held on Wednesdays, and the town contains a police station, post-office, and a good school. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Saháranpur. — District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 34′ 45″ and 30° 21′ 20″ N. lat., and between 77° 9′ and 78° 14′ 45″ E. long. Area, 2221 square miles. Population in 1881, 979,544 souls. Saháranpur is a District in the Meerut (Merath) Division. It is bounded on the north by the Siwálik Hills, which separate it from Dehra Dún District; on the east by the Ganges, separating it from Bijnaur District; on the south by Muzaffarnagar District; and on the west by the river Jumna (Jamuná), separating it from the Punjab Districts of Karnál and Ambála. The administrative head-quarters are at SAHARANPUR CITY.

Physical Aspects.—Saháranpur forms the most northerly portion of the Doáb or alluvial table-land which stretches between the channels of the Ganges and the Jumna. The Siwálik Hills rise above it on the northern frontier. Their slopes are rugged and abrupt, pierced by numerous passes, and crowned by jagged summits which often assume the most fantastic shapes. At their base stretches a wild submontane tract, overgrown with forest or jungle, and intersected by innumerable mountain torrents, which leap foaming down from the hills on their way to join the waters of the Jumna and the Ganges. These two main arterial streams themselves descend into the plain through magnificent ravines, which rapidly give way to high banks of clay, as the rivers pass from the mountain region into the level table-land below.

South of the intermediate forest belt lies the general plain of the Doáb, an elevated upland tract, in whose friable soil the great rivers have cut themselves wide and shifting courses, at a depth of about 60 feet below the general surface. The broad valleys thus excavated are naturally well watered and fertile; but the great central plateau lies high and dry, with a general elevation of 900 feet above the sea, while

numberless small ravines drain off its scanty moisture towards the low land on either side.

The highest cultivation has, nevertheless, been rendered possible throughout the District by two splendid engineering achievements, the GANGES and the EASTERN JUMNA CANALS (*qq.v.*), both of which take their origin within the boundaries of Sahâranpur. The latter work was originally planned and in part executed by Alí Mardan Khán, the celebrated minister of Sháh Jahán, but it was not finally completed till the year 1830. The difficulties attending the upper part seem to have been beyond the resources of Musalmán engineering, and the canal is believed to have never flowed beyond one season until its reconstruction by the British under Sir P. Cautley, R.E. Colonel Colvin believes that 'the task of maintaining the passage across the mountain torrents at its head was found to be so great, that the canal was abandoned (by its native projectors) almost as soon as formed, and that the repeated attempts at reparation afterwards were only efficient for a season, and were overcome by the increasing difficulties.' The Eastern Jumna Canal, as it now exists, is entirely a work of British engineering. The Ganges Canal was opened in 1855. Both these canals run through the whole length of the District, from north to south, and have converted large portions of its central plateau into stretches of unbroken cultivation.

The District is everywhere thickly studded with flourishing villages and populous towns. The waste lands are small in amount, except in the hilly northern region; and cultivation is spreading on every side, under the fostering influence of peaceful government, and the successful issue of the irrigation schemes. The general aspect of the country is indicative of steady progress and comparative wealth, though the land is still capable of bearing a considerable increase of population without undue pressure on its resources.

Besides the two great boundary rivers, Sahâranpur is intersected by the Hindan, West Káli Nadi, and Soláni rivers, which, with a number of minor tributary streams and hill torrents, ultimately fall into the Ganges or Jumna. The surface of the country has a general slope from north to south, with a fall from 1489 above sea-level at the Trigonometrical Survey Station at Mohand, at the foot of the Siwálik Hills, to 832 feet at Deoband in the south.

The mineral products are insignificant. In the middle and southern portions, *kankar*, or impure carbonate of lime, occurs in spongy nodules in the subsoil; limestone tufa, too, is occasionally found. To the north, the substratum consists of shingle and boulders, gradually giving place to sandstone, which at Mohand appears on the surface. Stone, hard enough to be used for building, is scarce. Pieces of sufficiently strong consistency for this purpose may be picked out of

the Siwálik standstone. But although most of the houses at Hardwár and Kankhal are constructed of materials so procured, the quantity obtained is not large enough to defray the expense of carriage to a long distance; and building stone is generally obtained from Agra.

Wild Animals.—Tigers are still numerous in the forest belt along the foot of the Siwálik Hills, and in the *khádar* of the Ganges. Leopards abound, and three varieties are distinguished in the District. Wild cats, lynxes, hyænas, and wolves are common. During the rains wild elephants frequently descend from the Siwáliks to feed, and they often come as far as the Ganges valley, ten miles south of the hills, where they cause much destruction to the crops. Several varieties of deer, and the antelope and *nílgái*, are also found. Poisonous serpents are not numerous; and the Siwálik python, which grows to an immense size, appears to be harmless, and confines its depredations to the lower animals. The most valuable of the edible fish are the *rohu*, *mahásir*, *anwári*, *sol*, and *chilwá*. Fish are tolerably abundant in the larger rivers, but measures are said to be needed to prevent their wholesale destruction near the canal heads.

History.—The portion of the Doáb in which Sahâranpur is situated was probably one of the first regions of Upper India occupied by the Aryan colonists, as they spread eastward from their original settlement in the Punjab. But the legends of the *Mahábhárata* centre around the city of Hastínapur, in the neighbouring District of MEERUT; and it is not till the 14th century of our era that we learn any historical details with regard to Sahâranpur itself. The town was founded in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, about the year 1340, and derived its name from a Musalmán saint, Sháh Haran Chishti, whose shrine is still an object of attraction to Muhammadan devotees.

At the close of the century, the surrounding country was exposed to the ravages of Timúr, who passed through Sahâranpur on his return from the sack of Delhi, and subjected the Hindu inhabitants to all the usual horrors of a Mughal invasion. In the year 1414, the tract was conferred by Sultán Sayyid Khizr Khán on Sayyid Salím; and in 1526, Bábar marched across it on his way to Pánipat. A few Mughal colonies still trace their origin to his followers. A year later, the town of Gangoh was founded by the zealous missionary Abdul Kaddús, whose efforts were the means of converting to the faith of Islám many of his Rájput and Gújar neighbours. His descendants ruled the District until the reign of Akbar, and were very influential in strengthening the Musalmán element by their constant zeal in proselytizing.

During the Augustan age of the Mughal Empire, Sahâranpur was a favourite summer resort of the court and the nobles, who were attracted alike by the coolness of its climate and the facilities which it offered

for sport. The famous empress Núr Mahál, the consort of Jahángír, had a palace in the village which still perpetuates her memory by its name of Núrnagar; and under Sháh Jahán, the royal hunting seat of Bádsháh Mahál was erected by Alí Mardan Khán, the projector of the Eastern Jumna Canal. Unhappily, the canal was permitted to fall into disuse during the long and disastrous decline of the Mughal power, and it was never of much practical utility until the establishment of British rule.

After the death of Aurangzeb, this region suffered, like the rest of Upper India, from the constant inroads of warlike tribes and the domestic feuds of its own princes. The first incursion of the Sikhs took place in 1709, under the weakened hold of Bahádur Sháh; and for eight successive years their wild hordes kept pouring ceaselessly into the Doáb, repulsed time after time, yet ever returning in greater numbers, to massacre the hated Muhammadans and turn their territory into a wilderness. The Sikhs did not even confine their barbarities to their Musalmán foes, but murdered and pillaged the Hindu community with equal violence. In 1716, however, the Mughal court mustered strength enough to repel the invaders for a time; and it was not until the utter decay of all authority that the Sikhs once more appeared upon the scene.

Meanwhile the Upper Doáb passed into the hands of the Sayyid brothers of Bárha, whose rule was more intimately connected with the neighbouring District of MUZAFFARNAGAR. On their fall in 1721, their possessions were conferred upon various favourites in turn, until in 1754 they were granted by Ahmad Sháh Duráni to Najíb Khán, a Rohillá leader, as a reward for his services at the battle of Kotila. This energetic ruler made the best of his advantages, and before his death (1770) had extended his dominions to the north of the Siwáliks on one side, and as far south as Meerut on the other. But the end of his rule was disturbed by incursions of the two great aggressive races from opposite quarters, the Sikhs and the Maráthás. Najib Khán handed down his authority to his son, Zábita Khán, who at first revolted from the feeble court of Delhi; but on being conquered by Maráthá aid, was glad to receive back his fief through the kind offices of his former enemies, then supreme in the councils of the Empire. During the remainder of his life, Zábita Khán was continually engaged in repelling the attacks of the Sikhs, who could never forgive him for his reconciliation with the imperial party. Under his son, Ghulám Kádir (1785), the District enjoyed comparative tranquillity. The Sikhs were firmly held in check, and a strong government was established over the native chieftains.

But upon the death of its last Rohillá prince, who was mutilated and killed by Sindhia in 1788, the country fell into the hands of the

Maráthás, and remained in their possession until the British conquest. Their rule was very precarious, owing to the perpetual raids made by the Sikhs; and they were at one time compelled to call in the aid of George Thomas, the daring military adventurer who afterwards established an independent government in Hariána. Indeed, the internal quarrels of this confused period are too complicated for brief narration; and it must suffice to say that the country remained practically in the hands of the Sikhs, who levied black-mail under the pretence of collecting revenue.

After the fall of ALIGARH and the capture of Delhi (1803), a British force was despatched to reduce Saháranpur. Here, for a time, a double warfare was kept up against the Maráthás on one side and the Sikhs on the other. The latter were defeated in the indecisive battle of Charáon (24th November 1804), but still continued their irregular raids for some years. Organization, however, was quietly pushed forward; and the District enjoyed a short season of comparative tranquillity, until the death of the largest landowner, Rám Dáyal Singh, in 1813. The resumption of his immense estates gave rise to a Gújar revolt, which was put down before it had assumed very serious dimensions. A more dangerous disturbance took place in 1824; a confederacy on a large scale was planned among the native chiefs, and a rising of the whole Doáb might have occurred had not the premature eagerness of the rebels disclosed their design. As it was, the revolt was only suppressed by a sanguinary battle, which ended in the total defeat of the insurgents and the fall of their ringleaders.

From that period till the Mutiny, no events of importance disturbed the quiet course of civil administration in Saháranpur. News of the rising at MEERUT was received early in May 1857, and the European women and children were immediately despatched to the hills. Measures were taken for the defence of the city, and a garrison of European civil servants established themselves in the Magistrate's house. The District soon broke out into irregular rebellion; but the turbulent spirit showed itself rather in the form of internecine quarrels amongst the native leaders than of any settled opposition to British government. Old feuds sprang up anew; villages returned to their ancient enmities; bankers were robbed, and money-lenders pillaged; yet the local officers continued to exercise many of their functions, and to punish the chief offenders by ordinary legal process. On the 2nd of June, a portion of the Native infantry at Saháranpur mutinied and fired upon their officers, but without effect. Shortly afterwards, a small body of Gúrkhas arrived, by whose assistance order was partially restored. As early as December 1857, it was found practicable to proceed with the regular assessment of the District, and the population appeared to be civil and respectful. In fact, the mutiny in Saháranpur was merely

an outbreak of the old predatory anarchy, which had not yet been extirpated by our industrial *régime*, and there was little indication of any popular aversion to British rule.

Population.—The earliest Census, which gives the population of the District with its present area, was that of 1853; the number of inhabitants then amounted to 801,325. By 1865 the population had increased to 869,176, or 389 to the square mile. In 1872 the enumeration disclosed a further increase to 884,017 persons. The last Census in 1881 returned the total population at 979,544, showing an increase of 178,219, or 22·1 per cent., in the 28 years since 1853. The increase since 1872 was 95,527, or 10·8 per cent. in 9 years.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area, 2221·4 square miles; towns 10, and villages 1595; number of houses, 91,977. Total population, 979,544, namely, males 530,427, and females 449,117; proportion of males, 54·1 per cent. Average density of population, 441 persons per square mile; number of towns and villages, ·72 per square mile; persons per town or village, 610; houses per square mile, 41·4; inmates per house, 10·6, a larger number than in any other District of the Province. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 197,979, and girls 165,806; total children, 363,785, or 37·1 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 332,448, and females 283,311; total adults, 615,759, or 62·9 per cent. The preponderance of males is chiefly due to the former prevalence of infanticide, a practice which all the vigilance of the Government has not yet been able entirely to check. In 1881, out of a total of 122,464 of the suspected castes (Rájputs, Gújars, Tágás, Játs, Ahírs, and Ahárs), the females numbered only 48,752, or 39·8 per cent.

Religion.—As regards the religious classification in 1881, Hindus are returned at 653,272, or 66·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 317,535, or 32·3 per cent.; Jains, 6673; Christians, 1793; Sikhs, 269; and Pársís, 2. Of the higher Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 47,288. Rájputs numbered 28,798, of whom only 11,540, or 40 per cent., were females. They are one of the castes suspected of infanticide, and in many villages the provisions of the Infanticide Act are strictly enforced. In physique, the Rájputs are a fine hardy race, but their lawless spirit has given much trouble. The Baniyás or trading castes were returned at 32,622, amongst whom the Agarwálas form by far the largest sub-division. Bháts numbered 2067, and Káyasths 1587. The other or Súdra Hindu castes numbered 540,910, comprising the great mass of the population. The most numerous of them were the Chamárs, reckoned at 174,956. Next in number come the Gújars, a race of supposed Tartar origin, almost peculiar to the northern Doáb, who are returned at 57,376. They are

a turbulent race, addicted to cattle-lifting, and are also among the clans suspected of female infanticide, the proportion of females among them being under 40 per cent. Kahárs number 42,915; Kachhís, 28,807; Bhangís, 28,740; Málís, 25,108; Tágás, 16,345; Kumbhárs, 15,511; Barháis, 13,450; Játs, 13,998; Gadáriás, 10,837; Lohárs, 8549; Náis, 8516; Koris, 6647; Ahírs, 5904; Sonárs, 5449; Dhobís, 4078; and Lodhs, 2982.

The Musalmáns are partly descendants of the various early invaders, partly native converts from Hinduism. Amongst the former, the Sayyids, Mughals, and Patháns are the most numerous. Those of Hindu origin still retain many of their old practices and prejudices, while their trade classes are assuming the rigid character of castes. The religious opinions of the people have been much shaken by the influences of civilisation, but Christianity has made little progress amongst them, nor does the faith of Islám now gain many converts. There were in 1881, 28,070 Muhammadans returned in the District as of respectable Hindu descent, namely, Rájputs, 12,843; Gújars, 14,207; Tágás, 893; Játs, 90; and Mewátís, 37. By sect the Muhammadans of Saháranpur consist of Sunnís, 314,855; and Shiás, 2680.

The Christian population comprises—Europeans, 1291; Eurasians, 166; and natives of India, 336. The American Presbyterian body has a missionary station at Saháranpur, established in 1836; and another at Rúrkí, established in 1856.

Town and Rural Population.—Saháranpur contains a considerable urban population. In 1881, ten towns were returned as containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, SAHARANPUR, 51,194; DEOBAND, 22,116; RURKI, 15,953; JAWALAPUR, 15,196; GANGOH, 12,089; MANGLAUR, 9990; RAMPUR, 7951; AMBEHTA, 6392; KANKHAL, 5838; and LANDHAURA, 5764. These ten towns contain an aggregate of 160,483 inhabitants, or 16·7 per cent. of the total population of the District. The four municipal towns of Saháranpur, Hardwar Union, Deoband, and Rúrkí contain an aggregate population of 122,234. Municipal income (1883-84), £9553, of which £7588 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1¾d. per head. The 1605 towns and villages are thus classified according to size —467 are mere hamlets with less than two hundred inhabitants; 558 contain between two hundred and five hundred; 385 between five hundred and a thousand; 146 between one and two thousand; 24 between two and three thousand; 15 between three and five thousand; 5 between five and ten thousand; 3 between ten and twenty thousand; and 2 upwards of twenty thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional, military, and official class,

16,502; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, 3999; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 13,624; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 180,709; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 94,838; and (6) indefinite, non-productive, and unspecified class, comprising general labourers and male children, 220,755.

Agriculture.—In 1883–84, out of a total area of 1832⅓ square miles, or 1,172,692 acres, assessed for Government revenue, 848,924 acres, or 72·4 per cent., were under cultivation, of which 97,314 acres were irrigated from Government canals, and 54,607 acres from wells and tanks, while 697,003 acres were unirrigated. Of the uncultivated area, 186,907 acres were returned as grazing lands or available for cultivation, while 136,861 acres were uncultivable waste. The *rabí* or spring harvest is sown in October, and reaped in March; and the *kharíf* or rain harvest is sown in June, and gathered in October. The chief spring products are wheat and barley (415,949 acres in 1883–84), pulses (65,858 acres), sugar-cane (40,062 acres), and oil-seeds (2792 acres). The staples of the rain harvest are rice (96,929 acres), *joár* and *bájra* (81,974 acres), and vegetables. The cultivation of cotton was carried on very largely during the prevalence of high prices caused by the American war; but in 1883, the area under cotton had shrunk to 47,352 acres. Indigo, on the contrary, has been grown in greater quantities since the introduction of canal irrigation has rendered its out-turn less precarious than formerly. Cereals are, however, the principal products of the total cultivated area. A Government botanical garden was established in the town of Sahāranpur in 1817, and has proved eminently successful, both from a scientific point of view, and in the practical work of naturalizing useful plants, trees, and fruits.

The condition of the peasantry is comfortable; but many of the Musalmán proprietors, in their disdain of personal toil, have carried sub-division of shares to such an excess that they have sunk into a position more impecunious than that of the labouring class. Until lately, the non-proprietary cultivators held their lands by customary tenure, at low fixed rates, which were not liable to enhancement; but the *zamíndárs* have now begun to exercise their legal right of raising the rent, and the labourers are fast losing their customary privileges. Many estates have been transferred to new proprietors since the Mutiny; and, unfortunately, in a large number of cases they have fallen into the hands of money-lenders, who are usually absentees, and make very indifferent landlords.

The landed estates of Sahāranpur District are all held under *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, or *bháyachára* tenures. *Zamíndárí* tenures are those in which the whole land is held and managed in common, and the

rents and profits of the estate are thrown into one common stock and divided among the several proprietors, whose rights are estimated according to fractional shares. Perfect *pattidárí* is that tenure wherein the whole lands are held in severalty by the different proprietors, all of whom are jointly responsible for the Government revenue, though each is theoretically responsible only for the quota represented by the proportion of the land he holds. *Bháyachára* or imperfect *pattidárí* is where portions of the land are held in severalty, and portions in common, with a joint responsibility for the Government demand. In this case, the revenue is primarily made up from the rents of the common lands, and the remainder by a cess proportioned to the holdings in severalty, and calculated either by custom or on a fixed scale.

Of the total male adult agricultural population (176,194) of Sahá-ranpur, 51,651 are returned as landholders, 901 as estate servants, 79,929 as cultivators, and 43,713 as agricultural labourers. Average area cultivated by each male adult agriculturist, 4·68 acres. The total population, however, dependent on the soil numbers 477,847, or 48·78 per cent. of the District population. The total Government land revenue assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, amounted in 1881 to £139,100, or an average of 3s. 5⅜d. per cultivated acre. Rental paid by cultivators, £197,524, or an average of 4s. 9⅜d. per cultivated acre. Rents are still to a great extent paid in kind, and in 1882 only 57 per cent. of the tenants paid in cash. The best lands rent at from 10s. 6d. to 12s. an acre, and the poorest from 3s. 9d. to 4s. 6d.; average rates, from 7s. 6d. to 9s. Wages have risen about 60 per cent. during the past ten years, owing to the large demand for labour on the canals and railways and at the Rúrkí workshops. In 1884, bricklayers and carpenters received from 7½d. to 9d. per diem; blacksmiths, 7½d.; common labourers, 3d. The ordinary prices of food-grains in 1884 were as follows:—Wheat, 20 *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 24¾ *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 6¼d. per cwt.; *joár*, 27 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; gram, 27 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; best rice, 8½ *sers* the rupee, or 13s. 3d. per cwt.; and common rice, 11¾ *sers* the rupee, or 9s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The capricious rainfall in the mountain tract to the north often causes sudden floods on the Ganges and the Jumna, yet inundations of importance seldom occur. Villages, however, are sometimes transferred from one bank to the other by shifting of the channel, as many as 330 being liable to fluvial action in some one or other of its forms. Drought visits the District with great severity; famines due to this cause having occurred in 1837, in 1860, and in 1868-69. On the last occasion, almost all the autumn crops were lost, except in the irrigated region, the area of which exceptionally in-

creased by 40,995 acres. In July and August 1869, the price of *joár* and *bájra* rose as high as 8 *sers* the rupee, or 14s. per cwt. Relief measures were undertaken early in that year, and for 77 days an average of 2948 persons were employed upon famine works, while 161 persons received gratuitous aid at poorhouses. These figures show that the distress was not nearly so severe as in neighbouring Districts. The opening of the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway, during the scarcity, contributed to allay the danger of starvation. The spread of irrigation has done much to secure Sahåranpur from the extremity of famine in future years; while, as regards communications, it compares favourably with any District in the North-Western Provinces.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of Saháranpur is chiefly confined to its raw materials, and especially to food-grains, in which it possesses a thriving and increasing trade. Its manufactures consist of coarse cloth, jewellery, sweetmeats, wood-carving, and leather-working. There are several cotton-pressing mills. The Rúrkí workshops, recently transferred by the Government to a private company, employ over 1000 workmen. Among the articles produced are steam-engines, pumps, printing presses, lathes, and mathematical instruments. Besides its direct value as a source of income, this establishment is of great importance as a training school for native artisans. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, also situated at Rúrkí, is a most useful institution; in 1871, no fewer than 112 students qualified for the public service. A large horse fair is held here every year, in connection with which an agricultural exhibition was established in 1881. A large annual horse fair is also held at Hardwár. The District is well supplied with means of communication. The Grand Trunk line of the Delhi and Punjab Railway runs for a distance of 42 miles within its boundaries, with stations at Deoband, Saháranpur, and Sarsáwa. A branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway now also forms a junction with the Punjab line at Saháranpur. There are also several excellent metalled roads, one of which leads by a tunnelled passage to Dehra. Total length of roads in 1883–84, 417 miles. Much traffic passes by the Ganges Canal. The Thomason College contains an English printing press, and there are three native presses in the District.

Administration.—In 1806, the land revenue amounted to £33,522; by 1850, it had risen to £105,844; and in 1883, it reached the sum of £118,066. The increase is due in great part to the benefits derived from canal irrigation. The other principal items of revenue in 1883–84 were—Stamps, £17,432; excise, £11,876; provincial rates, £14,568; assessed taxes, £4071; and registration, £1552. The District is under the civil jurisdiction of the *munsifs* of Saháranpur and Deoband, from both of whom appeals lie to the Judge of Saháran-

pur. In 1883, there were 14 civil and revenue and 20 magisterial courts open. The regular and town police in 1883 numbered 861 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 2·57 square miles and every 1135 inhabitants. The cost was £8043, of which £5539 was defrayed from provincial revenue. The regular force was supplemented by 1727 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), or 1 to every 567 inhabitants. In the same year, 1046 persons were convicted for all offences, being 1 person in every 936 of the population. Saháranpur contains 1 District and 2 subsidiary jails, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 312 in 1883, of whom 6 were females.

Education has been spreading slowly of late years. In 1860 there were 399 schools, with 5639 pupils, taught at a cost of £1559. In 1871 the number of schools had fallen to 381; but these had a total roll of 7934 children, while the sum expended on education had risen to £3674. In 1883-84 there were altogether 166 schools under inspection by the Education Department, attended by 5133 pupils. This is exclusive of private and uninspected schools, for which no materials exist. But the Census Report of 1881 returned 8176 boys and 252 girls as under instruction, besides 24,928 males and 524 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. There is an excellent school in connection with the American Presbyterian Mission, and the towns of Deoband and Saháranpur are noted for their superior Arabic and Persian schools. The District is divided into 4 *tahsíls* and 15 *parganás*, which contained 2066 estates in 1883-84, each paying an average Government revenue of £57 per annum.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Saháranpur is the same as that of the Doáb generally, modified by its northern position and the cool breezes from the neighbouring hill country. The cold weather arrives earlier and lasts longer than in the lower Districts, but the summer months are tropical in their excessive heat. The mean monthly temperature at Rúrkí in the north of the District, near the Siwálik Hills, for a period of 19 years ending 1881 was as follows:—January, 56·3° F.; February, 60·8° F.; March, 70·2° F.; April, 81·5° F.; May, 87·6° F.; June, 90·5° F.; July, 84·9° F.; August, 83·8° F.; September, 82·7° F.; October, 75·1° F.; November, 64·3° F.; December, 57·0° F.: average for the year, 74·6°. The average rainfall at Saháranpur town for a period of about 35 years is returned as follows:—January, 1·32 inch; February, 1·49 inch; March, 1·19 inch; April, 0·42 inch; May, 0·78 inch; June, 4·46 inches; July, 12·45 inches; August, 9·46 inches; September, 3·87 inches; October, 0·47 inch; November, 0·17 inch; December, 0·50 inch: total, 36·58 inches. Rúrkí, from its nearer proximity to the hills, has a rainfall averaging about 5 inches heavier than that of Saháranpur town. Fever and small-pox are the principal

diseases of the District. The total number of deaths registered in 1883–84 was 29,946, or at the rate of 29·62 per thousand, as against an average of 38·03 per thousand for the previous five years. Seven dispensaries in 1883–84 afforded medical relief to 981 in-door and 54,710 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Saháranpur, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. ii., Meerut Division, part i., pp. 130–334, by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S. (Allahábád Government Press, 1875). Also *Report of the Settlement of Saháranpur District* between 1857 and 1863, by Mr. Vans Agnew, published 1870; the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of the North-Western Provinces.]

Saháranpur.—North-western *tahsíl* of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Siwálik Hills and the river Jumna (Jamuná), and comprising the four *parganás* of Saháranpur, Faizábád, Muzaffarábád, and Haraura; watered by the Eastern Jumna Canal, and traversed by the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway. Area, 618 square miles, of which 441 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, and 353 square miles are cultivated. Population (1872) 253,606; (1881) 292,293, namely, males 155,318, and females 136,975. Increase between 1872 and 1881, 38,687, or 15·2 per cent. in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 176,269; Muhammadans, 113,563; Jains, 1829; and 'others,' 632. Of the 472 towns and villages in the *parganá*, 300 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 128 between five hundred and a thousand; and 43 between one and five thousand. The only place with upwards of five thousand inhabitants is Saháranpur town (59,194). Government land revenue, £33,315, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £37,418. Rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £67,244. In 1883, Saháranpur *tahsíl* contained (including head-quarter courts) 3 civil and 10 criminal courts, 5 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 203 men, and a rural police or village watch of 459 *chaukídárs.*

Saháranpur.—City, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 58′ 15″ N., and long. 77° 35′ 15″ E., on a low site on both sides of the Damaula Nadí. Population (1872) 43,844; (1881) 59,194, namely, males 31,506, and females 27,688. The Muhammadans, although they form only 32·3 per cent. of the District population, predominate largely in Saháranpur town, where they number 32,449, or 3·3 per cent. of the total District population. Hindus number 24,854; Jains, 1277; Christians, 562; and 'others,' 52. Municipal income (1883–84), £4299, of which £3786 was derived from taxation, mainly octroi.

The city lies in a low and moist situation, and until recent

drainage reclamations were effected, was exposed to the malarious influences from an unwholesome marsh on the west. About one-half the houses are built of brick or masonry, and the number of substantially built dwellings and shops is annually increasing. The principal market-place is a scene of busy trade. The station of the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway, opened to Sahăranpur in 1869, is the place of departure from the railway for travellers to the hill sanitarium of Mussoorie (Masúri). A branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway from Moradábád to Sahăranpur was opened throughout early in 1886. Besides the District head-quarters courts and offices, the principal official buildings consist of the *tahsíli*, an old Rohillá fort now used as an office, police station, post-office, dispensary, telegraph office, and jail. St. Thomas' Church was consecrated in 1858. Two or three hotels and a travellers' bungalow are situated near the railway station. A handsome new mosque, on the plan of the Jamá Masjid at Delhi, has been erected within the last few years by the Muhammadan community, who, besides being the most numerous, form the most influential body. Sahăranpur is the head-quarters of the Jumna Canal Establishment, the site of a mission of the American Presbyterian Church, and a station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey. The trade of the town, which is considerable, consists chiefly in grain, sugar, molasses, and country cloth. The Government botanical gardens, established in 1817, cover an area 3000 feet long by 2000 feet broad, and are laid out with many fine walks and carriage drives. A large horse fair and an agricultural exhibition, steadily increasing in importance, is held every spring. Sahăranpur was long notorious for malarious diseases, but the drainage operations and other sanitary works have effected a very marked improvement in this respect.

Saháspur (*Sahispur*).—Town in Dhampur *tahsíl*, Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 7′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 40′ 15″ E., on the Moradábád and Hardwár road, 28 miles south-east of Bijnaur town. Population (1881) 6338, namely, Muhammadans 5134, and Hindus 1204. Bi-weekly market. A speciality of the town is the weaving of a superior quality of cotton cloth, in pieces 5 yards long by 1 yard wide, which sell for 10s. Station on the northern extension of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

Saháswán.—*Tahsíl* and town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAHISWAN.

Sahatwár.—Town in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* MAHATWAR.

Saháwar.—Town in Kásganj *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces, 24 miles north-east of Etah town. Population (1881) 4065, namely, 1793 Hindus and 2272 Muhammadans. Police station, school, post-office. Founded by Rájá Naurang Deb, a Chauhán

Rájput, who called it Naurangábád after his own name. On being attacked by the Musalmáns, the Rájá fled to Sirhpura, and the inhabitants who remained were forcibly converted to Islám. Shortly afterwards, Naurang, assisted by the Rájá and the people of Sirhpura, expelled the Musalmáns, and changed the name of the town to Saháwar. The place is now far from flourishing; small local *bázár*, bad communications. Tomb of Faiz-ud-dín, a *fakír*, forms the only object of interest. Police station, post-office, and village school. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Sahet Mahet (or *Srávasti*).—A vast collection of ruins in Gonda District, Oudh; situated in lat. 27° 31′ N., and long. 82° 5′ E., on the south bank of the Rápti river, 10 miles from Balrámpur, and 6 from Ikauna. These ruins have been identified by General Cunningham as the remains of the ancient city of Srávasti, whose site had been conjecturally fixed by Lassen within a few miles of the spot, but on the opposite bank of the river. The following account has been prepared by Mr. W. Hoey for the present edition of *The Imperial Gazetteer*.

The name Srávasti is said to have been given to the city by an eponymous founder, a mythical king Srávasta of the Solar race. A connection has been suggested between the name of the city and that of the river, but without good grounds. We have the Sanskrit names Srávasti for the city and Airavati for the river, standing side by side with the Pali names Sawatthi and Aciravati respectively. The latter appears softened in the form Ahiravati which the Rápti bears in its course through the hills. The same name appears as Irawadi in Burma. Airavati was the name of Indra's female elephant.

Nothing is known of Srávasti till the time of Buddha, when it appears as an important city, the capital of Uttara Kosala. The king was then Parasenáditya, son of Aranemi Brahmadatta. This king had a son named Jeta by his Kshattriya wife Varshika; but he married a second time a Bráhman slave girl, Mallika, of Kapilavastu, by whom he had a son, Virudháka, who succeeded him. It is probable that she also bore him another son, Seger Sandalitu, who eventually became king in Tibet. Parasenáditya's treasurer was Sudatta, surnamed Anathapindika because of his charitable care for fatherless children. He, during a visit to Rájágriba, met Buddha and was converted to the new faith, returned to Srávasti, purchased a garden from prince Jeta, prepared to build a *vihára* for the master's reception, procured the deputation of Sariputta to superintend the erection, completed it, and finally induced Buddha to come and receive the gift for the Order. Jeta had meanwhile declared for the new creed and added to the building, so that when Buddha came he named the monastery Jetavana Anáthapind-Káráma, 'Jeta's garden Sudatta's pleasure ground.' The coupling of the two names has continued to this day in all Buddhist writings.

Sudatta is known in the Pali books as 'Mahasetthi,' the great treasurer (*setthi*) *par excellence*. Now, if we insert this name, we read, 'Jetavana Mahasetthi-árâma,' or, dropping the superfluous words, as we drop 'church' or 'chapel' when speaking of St. Paul's, St. Margaret's, and so on, we have the place named Jeta Mahasetthi. It is not hard to see how this eventually shortened into Set Mahet. This was the ancient name, and people still speak of the ruins of the Jetavana as Set. It was this name which was recorded in the settlement maps after annexation, and it is so written in the village records.

The Jetavana was one of the most famous, as well as one of the most sacred, places in Buddhist eyes, because Buddha here spent many of the periods of retreat in his long career. The two chief tenements within the garden enclosure were the Gaudhakuti and the Kosamba Kuti, both of which seem to have been identified by General Cunningham with propriety. Recent excavations have exposed many other undoubtedly ancient buildings, and show that there is a large field which would amply repay research. Near the place where probably stood the eastern gate, there has been opened a *stupa* which contained the begging pot and alms-bowl, and also the ashes of a monk. The last were found in a porcelain bowl enclosed in a casket. These seem to be the ashes of Sariputta, the great apostle and the architect of the Jetavana. We learn from Tibetan sources that he died at Nalanda in Lower Bengal. He was cremated. The disciples brought his ashes, pot, and bowl to Buddha, who carried them to Srávasti, and gave them to Sudatta, whom he instructed to build a *stupa* over them.

Buddha found many teachers of rival faiths and philosophies already established at Srávasti. Their names and something of their tenets are known, but the most important was Nirgrantha Juátaputta, the Mahavira of the Jains. It is not exactly clear that he ever met the last named in the course of controversy, but he met the others and worsted them. One of the distinguished teachers, Purna Katyapa, committed suicide. Jainism lingered on in Srávasti after Buddhism had vanished; and, as the Jains allege that their third patriarch Sobhnáth or Somnáth was born here, and they have a clinging veneration for a mound called after him, they still make pilgrimages occasionally to the spot. During recent excavations, this mound was opened, the walls of certain old buildings exposed, and many images were found. Other Jain temples were found not far off. All these Jain remains are within the city. The famous Jetavana lies wholly without the city; and it is not unlikely that it was the existence of other faiths already dominating the popular mind which placed Sudatta under the necessity of buying a garden outside the city for which he had to pay gold coins sufficient to cover the area he needed. It is clear that Srávasti was not only the capital of a kingdom, but the centre of free thought and philosophic speculation.

It was at Srávasti that Visakha Mátawi, the standing type of the noble Buddhist matron, lived. She built a *vihára* for Buddha here. It was also here that Devadatta died during an attempt he made on the master's life; and here two remarkable attempts were made to blast Buddha's reputation by charges of incontinency. And it was also here that he made his most remarkable conversion, that of Angulimála. Any one reading the Buddhist scriptures cannot fail to be struck with the number of discourses, rulings, and precepts delivered at Srávasti, nearly all at the Jetavana. The Jatakas, or birth-stories, told by Buddha are in all 498, and of these 416 were told at Srávasti, and of these 416 not less than 410 in the Jetavana.

Parasenádyita was a staunch friend of Buddha; but his son Virudháka usurped the throne, and combined with Ambharisha, the prime minister's son, to persecute the Buddhists. To this they were led by a desire to gratify private resentment against the Sakyas of Kapilavastu. Virudháka marched out with an army to wreak his wrath, but Buddha succeeded in inducing him to retreat. A second time he went unopposed to the Sakya town, effected an entry by fraud, massacred the people, and brought away 500 youths and 500 virgins. He slew the former and tried to force the latter to enter his harem, but they would not: so them too he slew near the walls of Srávasti.

Buddha now foretold that within a week Virudháka and Ambharisha would be burned up. Virudháka signalized his return to Srávasti by murdering Jeta. He then built himself a pleasure house in the waters of a tank and stayed there with Ambharisha and his women, for as he thought long enough. On the last day the women had left, and the king and his companion were about to leave, when the rays of the sun, acting through a magnifying glass, which was lying on a cushion, set fire to it and to the pavilion. In the conflagration the king and his evil adviser perished. Thus closed this line of sovereigns.

In the second century B.C., the Buddhist patriarch Rahulata died at Srávasti, and the Jetavana is said to have supplied a sect of doctors to the Fourth Buddhist Synod; but we know nothing of the history of the city until Fa-Hian visited it in 410 A.D. It is true that between 275 and 319 A.D. a king of Srávasti is mentioned named Khiradhar, and his nephew is said to have succeeded him, but they cannot have had any power. Fa-Hian found about 200 families living in the city. Hiuen Tsiang, who visited the place in the beginning of the seventh century, found it completely reduced to ruin, and only a few monks lingering at the deserted monasteries.

From this period all knowledge ceases. Local tradition connects Suhar Deo, who suçcessfully opposed Sálár Masáúd at Bahráich, with Sahet Mahet; but tradition is here very lame. The *Saulat-i-Masáúdi*, which gives the only account we have of this campaign, clearly describes

Suhar Deo as belonging to Siujháuli, and the same book mentions Rái Saet as a separate individual. Besides this, a stone bearing a long Sanskrit inscription, which was discovered in the course of recent excavations, gives a line of nine kings ending with Suhirdah (of which Suhar Deo is clearly a corruption); and their capital, though not yet clearly read, is certainly not Sahet Mahet, but will probably be found to be Guwárich.

The following more ornate account is quoted from Mr. W. C. Benett, C.S., in the *Oudh Gazetteer*, pp. 281–286. It is not necessary to agree with all Mr. Benett's dates and statements, in order to appreciate his work. See also General Cunningham's *Geography of Ancient India*, pp. 407–414 (ed. 1871).

'The foundation of the city is attributed to Srávasta, an old king of the Solar race, the ninth in descent from Manu, at a time beside which the most ancient myths are comparatively modern. From him was derived the name Srávasti, which appears in the Prákrit forms Sáwattha, Sáwanta, and Shrávanta, and has since been corrupted into Sahet. Though the words do not at first look alike, it is probable that the names of the river and the town, Sahet Mahet and Rápti, were once the same, viz. Sharávati, and derived from Savitri, the sun-god. At the mythical era of the *Rámáyana*, Srávasti was the capital of Uttar Kusála, the northern province of Ráma's empire, which, on the division of the kingdom at the death of that hero, fell to the share of his son Lava. At the commencement of the historical age, in the 6th century before Christ, we find it still one of the six principal kingdoms of Madhyadesha or Central Hindustán. It was then bounded on the south by Saketa, or Ajodhya, and on the east by Vaishali, the modern Behar and Benares; so it probably contained at least the present Districts of Bahraich, Gonda, Basti, and Gorakhpur. The king, Parasenáditya, who is given in the *Vishnu Purána* as great-grandson of Buddha, and who was very probably connected in race with the princely prophet, was an early convert to the new faith, and invited its founder to the Kalandaka Vihára in the Venuvana at Srávasti. Here, or in Ajodhya, Buddha spent the greater number of the rainy seasons, during which he used to rest from his missionary labours; nor did he finally leave the place till he started on that journey to Bengal which ended in his attainment of *nirvána*. During his lifetime, Sudatta, the prime minister, built the Jetavana, a magnificent monastery, whose ruins lie to the south-west of the capital. On the death of Parasenáditya, his son Virudháka succeeded, and showed himself a bitter enemy to the faith; he crowned many acts of oppression by including 500 Buddhist virgins in his harem. For this it was predicted that on the seventh day he should be consumed by fire. To falsify the prophecy, he and his court spent the day in boats on the pond to the south of the city; but

the waters fled back, the earth yawned, and the guilty monarch disappeared in a supernatural flame.

'From this time, Srávasti remained one of the principal seats of Buddhist learning; and 12 centuries afterwards, the Chinese pilgrim collected with reverence the traditions of his faith which lingered round the sacred city. At the end of the 2nd century B.C., Rahulata, the sixteenth of the Buddhist patriarchs, died here after having imparted his secret lore to the king's son, Sanghananadi; and at the Fourth Buddhist Synod, convened by the so-called Emperor Kanishka, the Jetavana furnished one of the three principal sects of Sthavíras or Buddhist doctors.

'The greatest political importance ever reached by this State was in the reign of Vikramáditya, who, in the middle of the 2nd century A.D., overthrew the mightiest king in India, the Ghaváhana of Kashmír; and as ruler of a vast dominion stretching from Pesháwar to Málwá, and from Málwá to Bengal, assumed with some show of right the title of Emperor of Jambudirpa or the Indian continent. Contrary to the traditions of his capital, he was a bigoted adherent of the Bráhmanical religion; and the legends connected with his rebuilding of the sacred places at Ajodhya and Debi Pátan show how low the fortunes of that creed had fallen in these parts when he lent it his powerful support. Both were a complete jungle, and he restored the localities of the birth of Ráma and of his passage to heaven by measurements from the *Rámáyana*. His identifications probably are the base of the topography of the present day. The remains of this monarch's tank and temple still exist at Debi Pátan. His death appears to have been followed by open disputes between the rival faiths; and the story that a distinguished Buddhist, Vasubandhu, worsted the Bráhmans in argument, may refer to a more material victory, especially as we find that his still more distinguished predecessor, Man or Nita, had been worsted in argument by the Bráhmans under Vikramáditya.

'The Ajodhya tradition,' says Mr. Benett, 'preserves the correct story of the fall of this dynasty. It relates that after a glorious reign of eighty years, Vikramáditya was visited by a Jogi, Samudra Pál, who, after exhibiting several remarkable miracles, induced the monarch to allow his spirit to be temporarily transferred to a corpse. The royal body was no sooner vacant than Samudra Pál projected his own spirit into it, and refused to evacuate. By this disreputable trick, he obtained the throne of Ajodhya and Srávasti, which he and his descendants retained for 17 generations. The fact contained in this singular legend is that Samudra Gupta, who reigned for the first forty years of the 3rd century A.D., overthrew the local dynasty and himself reigned in their stead. The period of eighty years, as the duration of the rule of Vikramáditya and his descendants, is exceedingly probable; and it is

singular, though much weight cannot be attached to the coincidence, that from Samudra Gupta to Gayáditya, the last of the Aditya monarchs of Kanauj, there are exactly seventeen names of the great Vaisya Emperors who governed Northern India.

'The Chinese pilgrims did not, of course, omit to visit so sacred a city. Fa-Hian in the commencement of the 5th century found it inhabited by 200 poor families, and the grand building in decay; and 150 years later, when Hiuen Tsiang arrived, the desolation was complete, and only a few monks haunted the ruins.

'It was destined, however, to recover for a while before it finally disappeared from history; and it is here that I must refer to its connection with the origin of a third religion, that of the Jains. The third of their Tirthankáras, Shambhú Náth, was born at Sáwatthi; both his immediate predecessors and both successors were born at the neighbouring city of Ajodhya. There is still a small Jain temple dedicated to Sobhá Náth. I have no doubt that Sobhá Náth and Shambhú Náth, Sáwatthi and Srávasti, are the same, and that this was the birthplace of the third Tirthankára. The eighth of these supernatural beings was born at Chandripur; and this place is always identified in local tradition with Sahet Mahet, as I shall have occasion to remark when I come to the *Mahábhárata* legend. Since the best authorities differ by about 1500 years as to the probable date of these patriarchs, and their very existence is a fair subject for doubt, I shall not venture to conjecture on their connection with the rise of a strong Jain kingdom in the 9th and 10th centuries. Of this dynasty little more is known than of that of Vikramáditya; one great victory throws them into the full light of history, and an interesting legend accounts for their downfall. Local tradition gives the following list of names:—(1) Máyura Dhwája; (2) Hansa Dhwája; (3) Makara Dhwája; (4) Sudhanya Dhwája; (5) Suhiral or Suhel Deo or Dal. These are diversely reputed to have been either Thárus, or of some Rájput house. Considering the almost certain origin of the modern Rájputs, the two accounts may both be true; but, as they were Jains, some confusion about their caste is easily intelligible. What is utterly baffling is that the second and fourth are the heroes of one of the episodes of the Drigvijáya section of the *Mahábhárata*. The only monarch who is really historical is the last, whose capital was at Srávasti, and who had a fort at Asokpur or Hatíla or Raza, about half-way on the road between Gonda and Faizábád. The tradition connecting him with Dumhria Díh is clearly transferred from the recollections of the subsequent Dom dynasty. When Sálár Masáúd crossed the Gogra, he met Suhel Dal at Hatíla, and the Jains were apparently defeated, though the place is still reverenced as the scene of the martyrdom of a distinguished Muhammadan officer. The invaders pushed to the north, and, if tradition is to be believed, fought another great battle under the walls

of Sahet Mahet, which contains the tomb of another martyr. Finally, after a long occupation of the country, the decisive battle was fought at Bahraich, where the Musalmáns were completely exterminated. In the indecisive conflicts and prolonged encampment in a hostile country, in all, in fact, but its denouement, the story bears a strong resemblance to that of the Pathán conquest of Utraula in the time of Sultán Sher Sháh Súr.

'It is related that only about forty years after this victory the Jain house fell. The last king, whose name is not given, was passionately devoted to the chase, and returned one evening just as the sun was setting. It would have been a sin to eat after sunset, and the queen, in order to secure the royal supper, sent up to the roof the exceedingly beautiful wife of his younger brother. The experiment succeeded, and the sun stayed to enjoy the sight as long as she stood there. When the feast was over, she descended, and the sun at once disappeared. The astonished king inquired the cause, and was determined to see with his own eyes the wonder-working beauty. His incestuous passion was punished by the ruin of his State, and amidst a terrific storm the whole city was turned bottom upwards. The modern name Sahet Mahet, says the legend, is descriptive of this inversion. This story is valuable as putting beyond reasonable doubt the first religion to which these kings belonged—the inability to eat after sunset, which is the point on which the whole turns, being derived from the Jain reluctance to sacrifice insect life.

'The chronology is also not without its value, and I have no doubt points to the conquest of the country by the first of the great Rahtor kings of Kanauj, Srí Chandradeva. In the last half of the 11th century, he made a pilgrimage to Ajodhya and Kusála (*i.e.* Gonda); and with a Kshattriya prince, pilgrimage is often another word for military expedition—"*na Kshattriya ka bhagat na músal ka dhanuk*"—"You cannot make a saint of a Kshattriya, or a bow of a rice pestle." An inscription of his descendant, the ill-starred Jái Chandra, has been found at Ajodhya.

'With the Ghori conquest of India, the history of Sahet Mahet comes absolutely to an end, and it only remains for me to notice one more local legend. Everywhere in the neighbourhood, it is told that the real name of the city before its overthrow was Chandrikápuri or Chandripur; and that it was here that Hansa Dhwája reigned, and Arjuna gained his very unheroic victory over the brave and beautiful Sudhania.

'All that now remains of this once famous city is the great fortress on the banks of the Rápti, with a smaller ruin to the south-west, a lofty mound due south on the Balrámpur and Bahraich road, and numerous small piles of bricks, probably the remains of ancient *stupas*,

scattered here and there within a distance of 2 miles of the main city. The fortress is in shape a semicircular crescent, with the concave side facing the river, and is completely surrounded by solid brick walls, the highest remains being to the west, where the ruins of the river bastion are still 50 feet in height. The ordinary walls vary from a greatest elevation of 40 feet on the western front to a lowest of 20 feet along the east and south-east. The interior is covered with jungle, so dense in parts as hardly to admit of the passage of an elephant, and broken into undulations by the remains of temples and palaces underneath. All the principal buildings were in the western half, and it is there that the undergrowth is the thickest, only ceasing along two or three broad streets which have been left bare, and indicate the chief features of the old city. The main street runs right through the centre, and is built so as to command a view of the great mound Orá Jhár from one end to the other. To the south it debouches by one of the principal gateways; and at the north it ends in a small square, containing among other lofty remains the two principal mounds, which may be identified with the Sudattás house and the Angulimati, a *stupa* mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang. The dense brushwood, and the possibility that the city which he saw may have been considerably altered by the later Jain dynasty, renders the application of that traveller's descriptions a difficult and hazardous task; but I am inclined to conjecture that his palace of Parasenáditya was situated among the mounds of the south-eastern corner, where now stands the small Jain temple.

'The next principal building mentioned by him, both in his *Life* and in the *Si-yu-ki*, is the Hall of the Law built by that monarch for Buddha, which would have been situated between the palace and the main street, while Prajapati's Vihára would have formed the whole or part of the long and even line of buildings which face the west of the street. The north-west corner of the ruin contains a large open space with a small pond in its centre, and a nearly straight road running from it to another southern gateway, and converging with the main street on the Orá Jhár. The eastern half has no very important remains, though the surface is broken everywhere with the *débris* of houses, and it was here probably that the common people had their quarters. The walls are pierced with numerous gateways, the principal being at either end of the main street and the north-eastern bastion, and in the middle and southern corner of the west wall.

'At the distance of half a mile from the south-west gate, and separated from the main town by swamps, which probably mark the course of the old moat, is another considerable ruin, identified by Hiuen Tsiang with the old Jetavana, one of the most famous monasteries in India. It is a singular fact that this feature is exactly repro-

duced in the remains of Rángi in Rái Bareli, where a similar oblong ruin lies at the same distance and direction from the main town. The remainder of the Chinese pilgrim's measurements seem to have been taken from this point; but it is difficult to select among the numerous mounds the remains of the great Vihára and its rival the idol temple. Nearly a mile to the east of the Jetavana is the high congeries of bricks known, as is the Mani Parbat at Ajodhya, by the name Orá Jhár or "basket shakings," and supposed to be the place where Ráma's labourers emptied out their baskets of earth. This is identified with some probability by General Cunningham with the Purvavaráma built by the lady Vaisákha in honour of Buddha. The top is protected by the tombs of two Muhammadan saints, but General Cunningham cleared one of the sides, and found four pilasters of an exceedingly ancient style of architecture. From the fact that two of the chief thoroughfares of the city so converge as to command a view of this mound, I should conjecture that it was more ancient than the plan of the present remains, and consequently one of the oldest monuments left in the neighbourhood. As yet very little is known of this very interesting ruin, which must contain relics that would do much to elucidate some of the darkest and most interesting periods of Indian history. I was once able to spend a few days in excavating, and dug more than 20 feet deep into the crown of the Angulimatia *stupa;* but beyond disclosing a square building of 24 feet each way, with a partition wall down the centre, and a second wall running all round the building at a distance of 4 feet, I discovered nothing of interest. It is somewhat difficult to get labourers, as the neighbouring villagers have a superstitious dread of interfering with the old city, and will not even enter it after sunset. A storm of thunder and lightning, which came on when I encamped there on a second occasion, was interpreted as a manifest token of the demons' displeasure with the man who had violated their haunts.'

Sáhibganj.—Town in the Dáman-i-koh tract of the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 40′ 3″ E., on the deep channel of the Ganges, which at all seasons runs close under the town, and contiguous to the station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. Owing to its favourable position, Sáhibganj, although only founded so recently as 1862, has become of late years a great depôt for the exchange of traffic between the river and the rail, and has attracted to itself trade before localized at Bhágalpur, Pirpainti, Rájmahál, and other marts of less note. Population (1881) 6512, namely, Hindus, 4776; Muhammadans, 1424; and 'others,' 312. Municipal income (1883-84), £685; incidence of taxation, 1s. 0⅝d. per head. In 1876-77, the total registered trade of Sáhibganj was valued at more than £450,000, including exports, imports, and in many

cases re-exportations. Local produce is received by river from the trans-Gangetic tracts of North Maldah, Purniah, and Bhágalpur; while European goods come up by rail from Calcutta, to be distributed in the same Districts. In 1876–77, the principal items under the former head were—indigo, £86,000; oil-seeds, £38,000; rice, £28,000; hides and stone, £27,000 each; wheat, £17,000: and under the latter head—cotton piece-goods, £38,000; salt, £12,000.

A registration station was first established at Sáhibganj in 1872, to ascertain the amount of river traffic passing along the Ganges between Lower Bengal on the one hand, and Behar and the Upper Provinces on the other. During the three years 1872–74, the average number of laden cargo boats passing Sáhibganj both ways was about 33,000; the total weight of the cargoes amounted to about 10 million *maunds*, or say 360,000 tons a year. The down-stream traffic is by far the larger of the two, especially during the latter half of the year, when the river is in flood. Nearly half the down-stream traffic consisted of the single item of oil-seeds, which amounted to nearly 100,000 tons a year, sent chiefly from the Behar marts of Revelganj and Patná. Next came wheat, pulses and gram, sugar and saltpetre; but none of these exceeded 20,000 tons a year. The up-stream traffic predominates during the first half of the year, the boats being often towed up by rope from the bank, assisted by sails. The chief cargoes were rice, about 100,000 tons a year; and salt, 40,000 tons. In 1876–77, the total number of boats that passed the registration station was 43,020, thus classified—up-stream, 12,379 laden and 9179 empty; down-stream, 18,419 laden and 3043 empty.

Sáhibganj.—Civil station of Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 47′ 58″ N., long. 85° 2′ 45″ E. Adjoins GAYA TOWN, of which it forms a part. Total population of Gayá with Sáhibganj (1881) 76,415, namely, Hindus, 60,181; Muhammadans, 16,161; Christians and 'others,' 73. Municipal income (1883–84), £5971.

Sáhibganj.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the river Bayá, a spill channel of the Gandak, from which it is about 4 miles distant, 30 miles north-west of Muzaffarpur town. Large *bázárs*, with trade in oil-seeds, wheat, pulses, and salt, exported by means of the Gandak; chief manufacture, shoes. Two schools. Roads to Motíhárí, Motípur, and Lálganj.

Sáhibganj. — Village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice and mustard-seed.

Sáhibganj.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 26′ 20″ N., long. 87° 52′ 45″ E. Population (1881) under 5000.

Sáhibganj.—Village on the river of the same name in Bákarganj District, Bengal. Exports of rice, molasses, and *sundrí* wood; imports of salt, oil, tobacco, cloth, and pulses.

Sáhibi (*Sabi*).—Hill stream in Gurgáon District, Punjab; rises in Rájputána near the Sámbhar Lake, flows through the Riwári tract, and empties itself into the Najafgarh *jhíl* or lake on the borders of Delhi District. It frequently submerges the land near the foot of the hills, which thus becomes extremely rich and fertile. The water is utilized by means of numerous dams, which force it to spread over the face of the country, and check the violence of its course near the hills.

Sahispur.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAHASPUR.

Sahiswán.—*Tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, stretching inward from the north bank of the Ganges, and comprising the *parganás* of Sahiswán and Kot. Area, 473 square miles, of which 328 square miles are returned as cultivated. Population (1881) 192,131, namely, males 103,861, and females 88,270; average density of population, 406 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 163,018; Muhammadans, 28,962; Jains, 107; and 'others,' 44. Of the 441 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 333 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 75 from five hundred to a thousand; 31 from one to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Land revenue (1881–82), £21,364, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £23,980. In 1884, Sahiswán *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 50 men.

Sahiswán.—Town and municipality in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Sahiswán *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 28° 4′ 20″ N., and long. 78° 47′ 20″ E., about a mile from the left bank of the Maháwa river, 20 miles from Budáun town. Population (1872) 17,063; (1881) 14,605, namely, males 7375, and females 7230. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 7715; Hindus, 6855; Christians, 30; and 'others,' 5. Municipal income (1883-84), £708, of which £584 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9½d. per head. Tri-weekly markets are held on Mondays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. Good unmetalled roads connect the town with Gunnaur, Bisaulí, Bilsi, and Ujháni; but the trade of the place is inconsiderable, and there is no manufacture. The *keora* or screw-pine is largely cultivated in the neighbourhood for the sake of the scent that is extracted from its flower. The public buildings include a masonry bungalow, used as a residence and court-house by District officers on tour; a *tahsíl* office, *munsif's* court, distillery, good *sarái*, Government charitable dispensary, school-house. A large mound marks the site of an ancient fort, said to have been built by one Rájá Sahasra-Báhu.

Sáhiwál.—Town and municipality in Sháhpur *tahsíl*, Sháhpur

District, Punjab, and former capital of a native chief. Situated in lat. 31° 58′ N., and long. 72° 22′ E., on the left bank of the Jehlam (Jhelum), 20 miles south of Sháhpur town. Founded, according to tradition, by Gúl Bahlak, one of the ancestors of the Baluch chiefs who held the neighbouring country until the time of Ranjít Singh. Population (1881) 8880, namely, Hindus, 4813; Muhammadans, 3881; and Sikhs, 186. Number of houses, 2130. Municipal income (1883-84), £784, or an average of 1s. 9¼d. per head of the population. The town is badly built, and surrounded by a stagnant marsh, which gives rise to much malaria; but strenuous efforts have been taken to abate this evil. Sáhiwál carries on a brisk trade in cotton, grain, and *ghí* with Múltán (Mooltan) and Sukkur (Sakkar), and is one of the chief commercial towns in Sháhpur District. The merchants act as bankers and money-lenders for the cultivating classes, while many of them farm estates on their own account. Manufactures of hardware, of turnery in wood and ivory, and lacquered ware. Town hall, dispensary, police station, school-house, *sarái.*

Sahpau.—Town in Sádábád *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 26′ 13″ N., and long. 78° 10′ 49″ E., 7 miles west of Sádábád town, and close to Jalesar road station on the East Indian Railway. Population (1881) 3635. Police station and post-office. Bi-weekly markets on Sundays and Wednesdays. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Sáhúka.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 tribute-payer. Area, 6 square miles. Population (1881) 920. Estimated revenue, £265, of which £51, 18s. is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £6, 10s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sahyádri.—Mountain range in Bombay Presidency. The term Sahyádri is applied to the entire system of the WESTERN GHATS (*q.v.*) from the Tápti river to Cape Comorin, but more especially to the ranges in the coast Districts of the Deccan. The Sahyádri hills in this sense commence in Khándesh District, and run south and south-west, as far as Goa, with scattered continuations to the Pál Ghát. Ratnágiri may be taken as an example of the coast Districts. The range here forms the continuous eastern boundary, running parallel to the sea. It varies in height from 2000 to 3000 feet, though some of the peaks attain an altitude of 5000 feet. The summits of the Sahyádri hills, both above and below the main range, are often crowned or girded by large massive basaltic rocks. These, with little aid from art, can be made fortresses most difficult to reach, and to look at, almost impregnable. Many of them have springs of the finest water; and in all a supply can be secured in cisterns and reservoirs. The Sahyádris are

crossed by numerous passes, and by a few made roads constructed by the British Government. On the crest of these passes, the scenery is grand. Mountains rise behind mountains three or four thousand feet high, covered with trees, except where the black rock is too solid even for the hardiest shrub to take root. Both at the opening and the close of the south-west monsoon, tempests and thunder-storms are common. West of the Sahyádri hills, which on that side rise precipitously from base to crest, the country is comparatively low, and the plateaux are seldom more than 500 feet above the sea-level. The lower hills are for the most part bare and treeless. The east face of the Sahyádris gradually slopes down to the table-land of the central plateau of the Madras Presidency, from 1000 to 3000 feet above sea-level.

The Sahyádri hills in their geological relations have a wider application, and include, as stated above, the whole Western Gháts from the Tápti to Cape Comorin in the extreme south of the peninsula. The authors of the official *Geology of India* (Messrs. Medlicott and Blanford) have described the Sahyádri hills in this sense as follows:—'The Sahyádri range consists to the northward of horizontal or nearly horizontal strata of basalt and similar rocks, cut into a steep scarp on the western side by denudation, and similarly eroded, though less abruptly, to the eastward. The highest summits, such as Mahábaleshwar (4717 feet), are perfectly flat-topped, and are clearly undenuded remnants of a great elevated plain. South of about 16° N. lat., the horizontal igneous rocks disappear, and the range is composed of ancient metamorphic strata. Here there is in some places a distinct connection between the strike of the foliation and the direction of the hills; but still the connection is only local, and the dividing range consists either of the western scarp of the Mysore plateau, or of isolated hill groups, owing their form apparently to denudation. Where the rocks are so ancient as those are that form all the southern portion of the Sahyádri, it is almost impossible to say how far the original direction of the range is due to axes of disturbance; but the fact that all the principal elevations, such as the Nílgiris, Palnis, etc., some peaks of which rise to over 8000 feet, are plateaux and not ridges, tends to show that denudation has played the principal share in determining their contour. The southern portion of the Sahyádri range is entirely separated by a broad gap (the PALGHAT, *q.v.*), through which the railway from Madras to Beypur passes.' See also the article GHATS (Western).

Sai.—River of Oudh, rising in Hardoi District in lat. 27° 10′ N., and long. 80° 32′ E. (Thornton), between the Gúmti and the Ganges. It flows in a tortuous south-easterly direction through Oudh, passing Rái Bareli and Partábgarh towns, enters the North-West Provinces in Jaunpur District, and falls into the Gúmti on its right or south bank a

few miles below Jaunpur town. Navigable in the rains for country boats of 10 tons burden as far as Rái Bareli town. Captain Wilford mentioned that this river 'is called Sambu and Sukti, and in the spoken dialects, Sye, because it abounds with small shells. This is really the case, as I have repeatedly observed while surveying or travelling along its banks. They are all fossil, small, and embedded in its banks, and appear here and there when laid bare by the encroachments of the river; they consist chiefly of cockles and periwinkles.' Wilford identifies the Sai with 'the Sambus of Megasthenes;' but the Sambus is mentioned by Arrian as a tributary of the Jumna. Arrowsmith's old map of India, '50 kos to the degree,' compiled chiefly from military sources, showed a cross communication between the Sai and the Gúmti some distance above Lucknow. This does not appear in later maps.

Saidábád.—*Tahsíl* in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDABAD.

Saidápet. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 342 square miles. Population (1881) 204,580, namely, males 102,676, and females 101,904; occupying 29,558 houses, in 3 towns and 271 villages. Hindus number 189,475; Muhammadans, 9266; Christians, 5723; and 'others,' 116.

The general appearance of the country is flat and uninteresting, with here and there ridged or conical hills of no great elevation. The soil is of various qualities, being, as a rule, better in proportion to its distance from the sea. Sandy, red, ferruginous, and alluvial soils represent the degrees of progressive fertility. Weaving is carried on in several villages. In one or two villages red handkerchiefs and Muhammadan cloth are manufactured for export, chiefly to Penang and Singapur. Surrounding, as it does, Madras city, the Saidápet *táluk* is well supplied with roads. The chief are the Great Southern Trunk Road, the High Western Trunk Road, and the Great Northern Trunk Road. The Madras and South Indian Railways also traverse the *táluk.* Water carriage is not wanting through the low-lying sandy tract on the coast; the Buckingham Canal runs along the whole length of the coast.

In Saidápet *táluk* are situated the Red Hills and Chembrambákam tanks.—*See* MADRAS CITY. The Red Hills tank or reservoir, which affords the main water-supply to Madras city, is distant 8 miles from Madras. The tank itself derives its supply from the Cholavaram tank, which in its turn is fed by an embankment across the Cortelliár river, 22 miles from Madras. The Chembrambákam tank is a large irrigation reservoir about 14 miles from Madras, formed by an embankment 7100 yards in length, connecting high ground on one side with a rocky spur on the other. It is provided with 8 irrigation sluices, and with 3 masonry

weirs aggregating 1192 feet in length, while its capacity is 2799 million cubic feet, and the area of its water-spread 8·95 square miles. The tank is an old native work, and the improvements consist of the extension of its capacity, and the increase of its water-supply. The chief sources of its supply are from anicuts across the Cortelliár and Cooum rivers. In 1883–84, the area irrigated and revenue derived was—first crop, 12,868 acres; revenue, £3982: second crop, 5652 acres; revenue, £1511: total revenue, £5493. The surplus revenue of the year was £2454.

In 1883–84, the Saidápet *táluk* contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 10; regular police, 223 men. Land revenue, £25,892.

Saidápet (*Sydapet*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency, and a station on the South Indian Railway; situated in lat. 13° 1′ 32″ N., and long. 80° 15′ 40″ E., 5 miles from Madras city. Population (1881) 4917, inhabiting 568 houses. Hindus numbered 4655; Muhammadans, 199; and Christians, 63.

The well-known Government model farm at Saidápet was established in 1865, under the Governorship of Sir William Denison. From the beginning it was fortunate in the appointment of Mr. Robertson as its first superintendent. Many important agricultural experiments have been made, and some have produced encouraging results, indicating the general direction in which improvements can be effected in the agriculture of the Madras Presidency. Attention has been given to subsoil drainage, improved tillage, the restoration of exhausted soils, and the proper utilization of irrigation water; the fertilization of arable soils by the use of lime, saltpetre, oil-cake, poudrette, and other manures available in Southern India, but now unused by the *ráyats*; the introduction of new crops, suited to the climate of India and adapted for cultivation under an improving agricultural practice, such as maize, Sorghum saccharatum, Carolina rice, Guinea grass and other grasses, New Orleans cotton and other superior varieties of cotton, tobacco, etc.; the production of live fences, in view of affording protection, shelter, and fuel; the introduction of water-lifts, barn machines, carts, ploughs, cultivators, cattle hoes, reaping knives, etc., of improved construction; and the improvement of similar kinds of machines and implements now in use in this country; improvement of the live-stock of the country by careful breeding and feeding, and by acclimatizing new breeds, etc.

In order to extend the practical utility of these experiments, a school of agriculture was opened in connection with the farm in 1876. A class of 30 pupils joined in the first year, of whom 9 came from the Bombay Presidency. A handsome building, used

as an agricultural college and museum, has been erected. A chemical laboratory is attached to it, and a veterinary hospital has been opened. Income from the Saidápet farm (1883–84), £4546; expenditure, £9221, showing a loss to Government of £4675. The farming operations at Saidápet have now been given up by Government, except so far as required for the practical instruction of the pupils in the agricultural school.

Saidnagar.—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDNAGAR.

Saidpur.—*Táluk* in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. —*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidpur.—Town in Farídpur District, Bengal.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidpur.—*Tahsíl* and village in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidwálá.—Town in Montgomery District, Punjab.—*See* SAYYIDWALA.

Sáifganj.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 32′ N., and long. 87° 37′ 36″ E., 20 miles distant from Purniah town. The population of Sáifganj itself is under 2000; but it is closely surrounded by suburban villages, which bring up the total number of inhabitants to about 10,000. The town contains a vernacular school, and a police outpost; there are also 3 Muhammadan mosques, a Hindu *math* or temple built in 1822, and two old tanks excavated in 1807 and 1822 respectively. The value of rice annually exported from Sáifganj is estimated at £25,000, and that of mustard at £5000; the number of blankets annually manufactured is valued at £600. Sáifganj was founded about 150 years ago by the Nawáb Sáif Khán, and is now one of the most populous places in Purniah. It is the head-quarters of the sheep-breeding trade of the District.

Sáifganj Pirwaha.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 13′ 55″ N., long. 87° 15′ 51″ E.; 38 miles distant from Purniah town, and 16 from Basantpur.

Sailána (*Sillána*).—Native State in the Western Málwá Agency, Central India. Area, 114 square miles. Population (1881) 29,723, namely, males 15,579, and females 14,144; occupying 6128 houses, in 69 villages. Hindus number 19,910; Muhammadans, 1508; Jains, 901; Sikhs, 15; Bhíls, 7169; Moghiás, 212; and Mínás, 8. Estimated revenue of the chief, £14,800; *jágírs*, £11,640; lands held for charitable purposes, £13,920. This State originally formed a part of RATLAM. On the death of Kesari Singh, Rájá of Ratlam, in 1709, his eldest son, Mán Singh, succeeded to the lands forming the present State of Ratlam, and Jái Singh, his second son, to Sailána. An annual tribute of £4200 was formerly paid to Sindhia, but is now assigned to the British Government in part payment of the Gwalior Contingent, under

the same conditions as the tribute of Ratlam. The present Rájá of Sailána, Dúli Singh, is a Rahtor Rájput, and was born about 1838. He receives a salute of 11 guns. The military force of the State consisted, in 1881–82, of 3 field guns, 15 artillerymen, 40 horse, and 225 foot. In 1881–82, 1207 *maunds* of opium and 199 *maunds* of cotton were produced.

Sailána (*Sillána*).—Chief town of Sailána State, Western Málwá Agency, Central India. Situated 12 miles north-west of Ratlam, and 6 miles west of Namli station on the Málwá line of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway. Lat. 23° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 0′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 4224. Post-office and dispensary.

Sailu.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces.—*See* SELU.

Sáin. — Mountain range in Sirmur (Sarmor) State, Punjab, lying between 30° 37′ and 30° 51′ N. lat., and between 77° 15′ and 77° 29′ E. long. Thornton states that its length is about 25 miles, running from north-west to south-east. This range divides the basin of the Julal from that of the Giri. Estimated elevation above sea-level, from 6000 to 8000 feet.

Sáinkherá. — Town in Gádarwárá *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2549, namely, Hindus, 2331; Muhammadans, 116; Jains, 8; and non-Hindu aborigines, 94.

Saint George, Fort.—See MADRAS CITY. Lat. 13° 4′ 45″ N., long. 80° 20′ E.

Saint Thomas' Mount (*Farangi-malai*).—Town in Saidápet *táluk*, Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency; the headquarters of the old Madras artillery, and still one of the most important military stations in the Presidency. Lat. 13° 0′ 18″ N., long. 80° 14′ 11″ E. Population (1881) 15,013, namely, 7404 males and 7609 females. Hindus number 10,645; Muhammadans, 1902; Christians, 2416; and 'others,' 50. Number of houses, 2264. The town possesses a fine church, several chapels, numerous military buildings, including a handsome artillery mess-house, post-office, and cantonment magistrate's court. It is a pretty place, and well kept. The *bázár* and native huts are hidden away to the eastward, which adds to the favourable impression made on the visitor who sees it for the first time. The church, standing at the southern end of the parade-ground, is one of the best-looking edifices of its kind in the country. It is seated for 500 men and 80 officers and their families. There are, besides, a Wesleyan chapel at the foot of the Mount steps, a Roman Catholic chapel for the European troops, and another small Roman Catholic church, 74 feet long by 25 wide, built in 1764 by the boatmen of Madras, and dedicated to the 'Presentation of the Blessed Virgin.' The soil is gravelly, and the health of the station is exceptionally good, epidemic cholera being of rare occurrence. The garrison consists of 2 field

batteries, with a half battery of garrison artillery, and a detachment of Native infantry.

The 'Mount' itself is a granite and syenite rock, about 220 feet above sea-level, overlooking the cantonment. The ascent is made by a flight of some 200 steps. On its summit stands the curious old Portuguese church of 'The Expectation of the Blessed Virgin.' This is built over the spot where the Portuguese in 1547 discovered the celebrated Mount Cross, attributed to the legendary evangelism of Saint Thomas. Lucena gives the following account of the finding of the Cross:—'It was met with on digging for the foundations of a hermitage amid the ruins which marked the spot of the martyrdom of the Apostle Saint Thomas. On one face of the slab was a cross in relief, with a bird like a dove over it, with its wings expanded as the Holy Ghost is usually represented when descending on our Lord at His baptism, or on our Lady at her Annunciation. This cross was erected over the altar at the chapel which was built on the new sanctuary.' Dr. Burnell (*Indian Antiquary*, 1874, p. 313) says: 'This account is, no doubt, accurate, for the Portuguese on first visiting the mount found the Christian church in ruins, and occupied by a native *fakír*. The description of the slab is also accurate. It does not appear what cause had destroyed the Christian community here, but it probably was owing to the political disturbances attending the war between the Muhammadans of the north and the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar.' Referring to an Italian account (in the 17th century) of the Cross and the Mount festival, Dr. Burnell continues: 'The cross is built into the wall behind the altar in a church on the Great Mount, which is served by a native priest under the Goa jurisdiction. An annual festival is held here, which brings a large assemblage of native Christians to the spot, and causes an amount of disorder which the European Catholic clergy of Madras have in vain tried to put down.'

In Anglo-Indian history, and notably in the wars of the Karnátik, Saint Thomas' Mount was a place of great importance. The battle fought here on the 7th February 1759 was one of the fiercest struggles of the Franco-British wars in India. It is thus described by Mr. Crole:—'Colonel Calliaud had been summoned from the south to assist in raising the siege of Madras. He took post at the Mount, with his right at a deserted little temple at the north-east of the present parade-ground, and his left supported by a house called Carvalho's garden, where he posted four pieces of cannon. His troops included the contingent brought by the Company's partisan Muhammad Isaf, and consisted of 2200 horse, 2500 foot, and 6 cannons. Of these, however, only 1500 natives, 80 Europeans, and 12 artillerymen were possessed of the slightest discipline. Lally's forces aggregated 2600, half of whom were Europeans, and all disciplined. He had, besides, 8 guns,

possessing a great superiority in weight of metal. The fight lasted from early morning till five P.M., when the enemy, to Colonel Calliaud's intense relief, retreated. The latter had ammunition sufficient to have lasted for about a couple of minutes more.' 'On the 20th March 1769, Haidar Alí, who had marched within 5 miles of Madras, met Mr. Dupré, the senior Member of Council, and here the disgraceful treaty of the 2nd April was signed. In 1774, at the suggestion of Colonel James, the Mount was established as the head-quarters of the artillery. The garrison of the Mount formed the major part of the force (under Sir Hector Munro) that ought to have saved Baillie in 1780. During its absence, only five companies of Sepoys and 4 guns had been left for the protection of the Mount, and a temporary earthwork was raised to strengthen the place against attack. This has long been levelled, but a slight depression crossing the plain midway between Palavaram and the Mount indicates the position of what went by the name of the Maráthá Ditch.'—*Chengalpat District Manual*, p. 73.

According to Dr. Burnell, the date of the cross tablet and its Pehlevi inscription is probably about the 8th century.

Saint Thome (*Maláipur*, *Mylapore*).—Suburb of MADRAS CITY (*q.v.*). Lat. 13° 2′ N., long. 80° 19′ E. Known as Little Mount, where, according to tradition, St. Thomas, the Apostle of India, was martyred, and on which stands a Roman Catholic church.

Sáipur.—Town in Unao District, Oudh.—*See* SAFIPUR.

Sáiri.—Village in the Simla Hills, in a part of the Patiála hill territory; situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., long. 77° 6′ E., on a ridge crossed by the road from Kálka and Kasauli to Simla *viâ* Subáthu, 10 miles from Simla station. Staging bungalow. Elevation above sea-level, 4971 feet.

Sakala.—Ruins in Jhang District, Punjab.—*See* SANGALA.

Sakaldiha.—Town in Chandauli *tahsíl*, Benares District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 20′ 28″ N., long. 83° 19′ 08″ E., 6 miles north of Chandauli town, and 20 miles east of Benares city. Population (1881) 2880, mostly Muhammadans, Bráhmans, and Barhaulia Rájputs. Markets are held on Mondays and Thursdays, for the sale of grain, cloth, vegetables, fish, sweetmeats, and brass and iron vessels. The town also contains a considerable number of shops, a fort built by Achal Singh, four sugar manufactories, two mosques, four temples, police station, post-office, and English and Hindu schools. The Sakaldiha station on the East Indian Railway is 2 miles distant from the town. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy.

Sákar Pathár.—Sanitarium in Poona (Puna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated 4 miles south of Lonauli station on the south-east extension of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Sákar Pathár is

a raised plateau 3000 feet above sea-level. The plateau is extensive and fairly wooded, with good building sites on the west, close to the edge of the Sahyádri hills. The water-supply is from a little lake on the plateau, with an area of three acres. The lake is calculated to hold about 3,000,000 gallons, or 12,000 gallons a day for 250 days. In 1883, Government sanctioned the establishment of a sanitarium at Sákar Pathár, and leases were granted on the same terms as those at Mátheran. No applicant is to be allotted more than one site, and each is bound to build a house within three years or to forfeit his claim.

Sakeswar (*Sukesar*).—Mountain in Khusháb *tahsil*, Sháhpur District, Punjab; the highest peak in the SALT RANGE. Situated in lat. 32° 33′ N., long. 71° 58′ E., 25 miles east of Miánwáli town. A fine well-wooded hill, forming the terminal point in which two divergent spurs of the range re-unite. Upon its summit stands the sanitarium for Sháhpur and Miánwáli, at an elevation of 5010 feet above sea-level, with plenty of excellent building space available. Wild olive trees are abundant, and the oak thrives well. According to daily meteorological observations made by the Civil Surgeon of Sháhpur between the middle of June and the middle of October 1866, the average temperature of Sakeswar was 75° F., or one degree less than summer heat in England. The climate of Sakeswar, and indeed of the whole of the higher parts of the Salt Range, is believed to be well adapted for Europeans, and very favourable in cases of dysentery and phthisis, which, as a rule, do not derive any benefit in the Himálayan sanitaria. The great drawback to Sakeswar is the scarcity of good drinking water. There are, however, many places in the neighbourhood where excellent water is procurable; and by having recourse to tanks, a sufficiency of water could be stored for a considerable number of people.

Sakhar.—Sub-division, *táluk*, and town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SUKKUR.

Sakhera (or *Sankheda*).—Town in Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 4661. The only object of interest is an old fort which surrendered to a small force of British troops in 1802. Customs house, Gujaráthí school, and two *dharmsálas*. The calico-printing and dyeing of Sakhera have a local celebrity; and considerable taste is shown in wood-carving.

Sakhi-Sarwár.—Famous Muhammadan shrine in Derá Ghází Khán *tahsíl* and District, Punjab. Lat. 30° N., long. 70° 10′ 30″ E. The shrine crowns the high bank of a hill stream, at the foot of the Sulaimán range, in the midst of arid desert scenery, 'well adapted for the residence of those who desire to mortify the flesh.' Founded in honour of Saidi Ahmad, afterwards known as Sakhi Sarwár, the son of an immigrant from Bághdád, who settled at Sialkot, 12 miles east of Múltán, in the year 1220. Saidi Ahmad became a devotee, and having performed a

very remarkable series of miracles, was presented by the Delhi Emperor with four mule-loads of money, with which the Sakhi-Sarwár shrine was erected. A handsome flight of steps leads from the bed of the stream to the building, constructed at the expense of two Hindu merchants of Lahore. The buildings include—the mausoleum of Sakhi Sarwár himself; a monument of Bába Nának; the tomb of Massamát Bíbí Bhái, wife of Sakhi Sarwár; and a *thakúrdwára*. They thus comprise a curious mixture of Hindu and Muhammadan architecture, and are frequented by devotees of all religions. The guardians of the shrine are the descendants of Sakhi Sarwár's three servants, among whom the revenues accruing from the offerings are divided in 1650 shares, the descendants of one servant receiving 750 shares, of another 600 shares, and of the third 300 shares. Throughout the year, the shrine forms the resort of numerous mendicants, Hindu and Muhammadan.

Sakít.—Ancient and decaying town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 26′ 10″ N., long. 78° 49′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 5435, consisting of 3809 Hindus and 1626 Muhammadans. Sakít stands on an isolated site, 12 miles south-east of Etah town. Its hill was once crowned by a fort; but now only the remains of a large mosque, erected in the 13th century, testify to the former supremacy of the Muhammadan element. On the highest part of the existing town rises a half-finished modern temple, remarkable for its Saracenic arches, supported on slender pillars of richly carved Agra stone—an ambitious work commenced by a commissariat servant (who enriched himself during the Sikh war), but died before its completion. The town clusters around this temple, which, from its conspicuous position, forms a landmark for many miles around. The principal road enters Sakít over a ravine by a fine new bridge, constructed out of the foundations of the old fort. Handsome *bázár*, lined by good shops with flat and pointed ornamental fronts. Trees line the roadway and afford a pleasant shade. The *sarái* is now in ruins; the roof of the old mosque is broken down; and the water of the handsome well has become brackish. New brick-built police station on the site of the old fort; post-office; Anglo-vernacular school. Small trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed. Numerous inscriptions on mosques. Bahlol Lodi died at Sakít in 1488; and Ibráhím Lodi planted a colony of Kont Musalmáns here in 1520.

Sakkampattí.—Town in Tenkási *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5945. Hindus number 5559; Muhammadans, 289; and Christians, 97. Number of houses, 1327.

Sakkaraikottai.—Town in Rámnád *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 21′ N., long. 78° 55′ E. Population (1881) 3464, dwelling in 501 houses.

Sakleshpur (lit. '*town of the fragmentary Ishwara*').—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 50′ 31″ E., on the right bank of the Hemavati river, 23 miles west of Hassan town. Population (1881) 1354. Head-quarters of the Manjarábád *táluk*, and the centre of the coffee trade. The Hemavati is here crossed by an iron girder bridge, carrying the road by which the coffee of the highlands is borne to the seaport of Mangalore.

Sákolí. — Eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Area, 2033 square miles, with 2 towns and 823 villages, and 54,363 houses. Population (1881) 272,481, namely, males 135,362, and females 137,119. Deducting an area of 697 square miles, comprising 17 *zamíndárís* or petty chiefships, with a population of 41,731, the area of the British portion of the Sub-division amounts to 1336 square miles, with 2 towns and 608 villages, and 46,444 houses. Population 230,750, namely, males 114,177, and females 116,573; average density, 172·7 persons per square mile. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) in 1881 numbered 77,414 in the Government lands, the average area of available cultivated and cultivable land being 6 acres for each adult agriculturist. Of the total Government area of 1336 square miles, 384 square miles are held revenue-free, while 952 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 420 square miles are cultivated, 179 square miles are cultivable, and 353 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government land revenue in 1883, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £16,952, or an average of 1s. 2⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £27,163, or an average of 1s. 11⅜d. per cultivated acre. Sákolí *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 2 civil and 1 criminal courts, with 3 police circles (*thánás*) and 7 outpost stations, a regular police force numbering 108 men, and a village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*) numbering 794 men. Sákolí village is situated in lat. 21° 15′ N., and long. 80° E.

Sakrand. — *Táluk* of the Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád, (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1390 square miles. Population (1872) 53,566; (1881) 52,075, namely, males 27,947, and females 24,128. Hindus number 3950; Muhammadans, 45,694; Sikhs, 2406; Christians, 2; and aboriginal tribes, 23. Number of houses, 9216, in 111 villages. Much of the land in the eastern portion is covered with sandhills. Revenue, £1624. The *táluk* in 1882–83 contained—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 32 men. Area assessed for land revenue, 42,305 acres; under actual cultivation, 38,847 acres.

Sakráypatna (or *Sakrepatna*).—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 26′ N., and long. 75° 58′ 5″ E., 15 miles by

road north-east of Chikmagalur. Population (1871) 1866; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. The site of an ancient city locally identified with the capital of Rukmangada, a king mentioned in the *Mahábhárata.* The objects now extant include—a monument to Honbilla, a watchman whose life was sacrificed in order to preserve the neighbouring AYYANKERE TANK; a huge gun; and an immense slab of stone, 12 feet square and several inches thick, supported on four pillars. In historical times, Sakráypatna passed through the hands of several families of local chiefs, until annexed to the Hindu kingdom of Mysore in 1690. A large fair is held weekly on Fridays. At the annual car festival of Ranganáth 3000 rams are sacrificed in honour of the god.

Sakri.—River of Bengal, rising in Hazáribágh District, and flowing in a generally northerly direction through Gayá and Patná Districts. In Hazáribágh it has a drainage basin of 810 square miles; and being the central stream in a low well-cultivated valley, it receives from all sides numerous feeders. It has a distinct water system, and preserves its own name while it passes through Gayá and Patná Districts on its way to join the Ganges in Monghyr. Throughout its course it is much used for irrigation.

Sakse.—Fort and Customs Division, Kolába District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SANKSHI.

Saktí.—Native State, at the eastern limit of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, to which it is now attached. Population (1881) 22,819, chiefly Hindus, residing in 117 villages and 3955 houses; area, 115 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated and 47 returned as cultivable waste. Density of population, 198 persons per square mile. Saktí was originally one of the Garhját States attached to Sambalpur District. It consists of a curved strip of level country, partly open, partly covered with forest, skirting the base of a range known as the Gunji Hills. Chief products—rice, wheat, oil-seeds, and cotton, besides a small quantity of forest produce, consisting of lac, resin, gum, and *mahuá* fruit. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and pays a tribute of £35. At present, however (1884), the State is under direct British administration. Total revenue for 1883-84, £1680, of which about £1000 was derived from land revenue; expenditure, £1718. In 1872, only 22 persons were returned as able to read and write, or as being under instruction; but since the State has been taken under Government management, a considerable impetus has been given to education, and there are several flourishing village schools. Several good roads connecting the State with neighbouring *zamíndárís* have been constructed, and are reported to be the best fair-weather roads in Biláspur. Good dispensary. Saktí town lies in lat. 22° 0′ 30″ N., and long. 83° E.

Salámbha.—Village in Núh *tahsíl,* Gurgáon District, Punjab; situated

in the midst of a large saline tract, known as the Núh *mahál*s, near the foot of the Mewát Hills, north of Sonah. The salt formerly manufactured here bore the general name of Salámbha salt, but was produced in ten separate places within this region. It was made by the evaporation of brine drawn from wells, together with the washings of saline earth, and was of very inferior quality, containing large amounts of magnesia and other ingredients besides the pure chloride. The total quantity manufactured in 1871–72 was 203,182 *maunds*. The manufacture, however, has now entirely ceased in this tract, the local product having been driven out of the market by the superior and cheaper Sámbhar lake salt.

Sálandi (properly *Sálnadí*).—River of Orissa, Bengal, so called from the *sál* forests which it traverses. It rises in the southern slope of the Meghásani Mountain in Morbhanj State, and in its upper course is a black-water river with high banks and a bottom of muddy sand. For miles the Sálandi flows through one continuous grove of palms and bamboos; it is navigable for country boats as high as 6 miles from its junction with the Baitaraní. Its lower course bifurcates into a network of streams interlaced with those of the Matái, a river bringing down the drainage of the country between the Kánsbáns and the Sálandi, and after a tortuous course falling into the Dhámrá near its mouth. The area of the catchment basin of the Sálandi is 250 square miles; the maximum discharge in flood-time, 60,000 cubic feet; and the average cold-weather discharge, 260 cubic feet.

Saláya.—Port in Nawánagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Saláya is the port of Khambhália, from which town it lies about 9 miles north. Population (1881) 2773. It is probably the best port (with the exception of Bombay and Karáchi) on the west coast of India. Owing to the excellence of the harbour, it would make a good terminus for any further extension of the railway. The trade of the country inland would be attracted hither, and shipments might be made direct to and from Europe. The port has two entrances, one between Kárumbhár island and the mainland, narrow and deep; and the other between Kárumbhár and Dháni Bet, about a mile broad. The harbour is perfectly sheltered on the east and north-east by Nárera Bet and Kárumbhár, and to the west and north-west by the Dháni Bet. On the north-west corner of Kárumbhár island, a lighthouse built of coral, 30 feet high, with an ordinary fixed white light, has recently (1884) been erected by the Nawánagar State. The shores of both the mainland and the island are fringed with large coral reefs. The chief exports are *ghí*, which is usually sent to Cutch, and cotton to Bombay. The imports are cotton seed from Gujarát ports, dates from Basra and Maskat, and timber from the Malabar coast. The port of Saláya was classed among the regular harbours by the Mughal government, and

appears in the list of ports in the *Mirat-i-Ahmadi* as belonging to Islámnagar (Nawánagar). Post-office and vernacular school.

Salbái (*Salbye*).—Village in Gwalior State, Central India; situated 32 miles south-east of the fort of Gwalior, in lat. 25° 51′ N., long. 78° 19′ E. Celebrated for the treaty concluded here in 1782 between the British Government and the Maráthá Confederacy, at the close of the struggle for the Peshwáship which took place after the death of Madhu Ráo Ballal. That treaty provided for the surrender to the Peshwá of Bassein and other territory captured by the British during the war; and the cession to the British of Salsette, Elephanta, Karanj, and Hog islands off Bombay. Under the third article of the treaty, the right of the British to the town and *parganá* of Broach was fully recognised, but these were conferred by Government upon Sindhia in consideration of his services, upon the condition that British trade should be free and unmolested. (*See* Aitchison's *Treaties and Engagements*, vols. iii. and iv., ed. 1876.)

Sálbaldi.—Village and hill on the Márú river; situated in lat. 21° 26′ N., and long. 77° 59′ E., 5 miles north of Morsi, partly in Ellichpur District, Berar, and partly in Betúl District, Central Provinces. Celebrated on account of two springs, one very cold, the other warm. When Sítá was deserted by Ráma, she is said by local tradition to have come to Sálbaldi, and to have given birth here to two sons, Kusa and Lava. This tradition would identify Sálbaldi as the scene of the hermitage of Valmiki, whither Sítá, when pregnant, was banished by Ráma.

Sálbet (*Shialbet*, *Searbet*, *Shalbet*).—Island situated about 2 miles from the coast of Káthiáwár, Bombay, in lat. (centre) 20° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 33′ 30″ E., 8 miles east-north-east of Jafarábád and 17 miles from Mowah Point. The island is in an impoverished state. Population (1881) 289. It is about three-quarters of a mile long on its sea-face, and a little more than half a mile broad. Old fortifications stand on its north-west and south points, the latter being strongly constructed. The island is of sandstone, and is included within the State of JAFARABAD. A well in the centre supplies good water. Sálbet was formerly a famous piratical stronghold, and might, according to Taylor (*Sailing Directory*, p. 360), be made a safe harbour. Such a refuge is much wanted along the south coast of Káthiáwár. After the island of Diu was acquired by the Portuguese, they seem to have established themselves at Sálbet and elsewhere on the coast. When, however, the Portuguese power in the northern part of their dominions was curtailed by the fall of Bassein (1739), they were obliged to withdraw from outlying posts like Sálbet and concentrate their efforts on the defence of Diu.

Salem (*Selam*, properly *Shelam*, which is perhaps a corruption of Chera, the name of the ancient monarchy in which the District was

embraced).—British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 11° 2′ and 12° 54′ N. lat., and between 77° 33′ and 79° 6′ E. long. Area, 7653 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,599,595 persons. Salem District is bounded on the north by Mysore (Maisúr) and North Arcot; on the east by Trichinopoli, and by South and North Arcot; on the south by portions of Coimbatore and Trichinopoli; and on the west by Coimbatore and Mysore. The administrative head-quarters are at SALEM TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Except towards the south, the District is hilly, with large plains lying between the several ranges. The chief of these ranges are the Shevaroys (highest point, 5410), the Kalráyans (about 4000), the Melagiris (4580), the Kollimalais (4663), the Pachamalais (about 4000), the Yelagiris (4441), the Jevádis (3840), the Vatthalamalais (about 4000), the Erlvánis and Valasaimalais (about 3800), the Bodamalais (4019), the Thopúr hills, the Thalaimalais. There are also innumerable detached peaks and smaller ranges.

The District has been described as comprising 'three distinct tracts of country, known as the Talághát, the Báramahál, and the Bálághát. The Talághát division, as its name implies, is situated below the Eastern Gháts on the level of the Karnátik generally, and in soil and climate differs but little from the neighbouring Districts of Trichinopoli and South Arcot. The Báramahál division includes the whole Salem face of the Gháts and a wide tract of country at their base; and the Bálághát is situated above the Gháts, on the table-land of Mysore.' Of the Hosúr *táluk*, only one-half to the north is really Bálághát, the southern half lying considerably below the level of the Mysore plateau. Hosúr itself is about 3000 feet above the sea. Dharmapuri is about 1500 feet, and Krishnagiri from 1500 to 2000 feet above sea-level. Tirupatúr and Uttankarai lie in one basin, and average slightly over 1350 feet above sea-level. At Salem there is a considerable drop, the town of that name being only 947 feet above the sea. The climate is generally dry, and in the northern portions cooler than in the south, the climate of Hosúr being as temperate as that of Bangalore.

The chief river of the District is the KAVERI (Cauvery), from the left bank of which a large area in Námakal is irrigated. The PALAR only flows through a few miles of the northern corner of the Tirupatúr *táluk*, where it does nearly as much harm as good, as little use is made of the water, and the town of Vániambadi lies at the mercy of its floods. In 1874, a considerable portion of this town was washed away, and it is only a question of time when the remainder, hitherto preserved at considerable cost, will follow. The PENNER, rising in Mysore territory, flows through Hosúr and Krishnagiri to Uttankarai, where, near the South Arcot frontier, it is joined from north and south by the Pámbár and Vániár, minor streams. The Sanathkumaranadi traverses

Hosúr and Dharmapuri, in the latter *táluk*, near Marandahalli, being tapped with profit to *ráyats* and Government. The fertility of the Atúr *táluk* is chiefly due to the Vasishtanadi and Swethanadi, which flow eastward into South Arcot. There are, besides these, numerous tributaries of the Káveri. A small traffic is carried on the Káveri in basket boats, and timber is occasionally floated down. The water of these rivers is utilized either by anicuts thrown across their beds, or by channels which tap the banks. The channel system is very extensively worked in the Paramathi division of the Námakal *táluk*. The fisheries of the District, although they make a considerable total, are individually insignificant, consisting of the right of fishing in the different Government tanks, which is purchased for sums varying from 10s. to more than £20.

The District forests are of considerable value, but there is some reason to fear that they have been overworked, with a view to immediate profit rather than ultimate revenue. The forests, situated for the most part on the hills or in the valleys formed by them, cover an area of more than 2000 square miles. There is a considerable amount of evergreen forest on the summit of the higher ranges; and on the outer slopes of most of the hills there is a fair amount of deciduous forest, with many valuable varieties of trees. The Jevádi and Yelagiri hills contain some valuable timber, and a large portion of the Shevaroys is clothed with middling-sized jungle. Sandal-wood is found. The most valuable forest is the belt of *vengai* (Pterocarpus Marsupium) on the hilly tracts which fringe the Káveri in the south of the Hosúr *táluk* and towards Pennagaram. Reserves and plantations have been formed for the supply of fuel to the railway, but at the present stage the experiment is not sufficiently advanced to admit of an accurate estimate being formed of its utility. Jungle produce, such as honey, beeswax, bark for tanning and dyeing, soap-nut, fibres, medicinal roots, etc., are collected by the Malayális and other jungle tribes; in some cases this right is rented out. Lac is found in the Hosúr jungles, and both in the hills and on the plains the tamarind is a considerable source of revenue.

Wild animals are daily diminishing in numbers, as each hillman carries a gun and shoots for food everything that comes in his way, regardless of sex, age, or season of the year. Bison and even elephants are occasionally seen on the Jevádis. Leopards and bears are to be found in most of the hilly tracts. *Sámbhar* deer may be found towards Pennagaram, and in a few places in the Hosúr *táluk*. Hyænas, antelope, deer of several kinds, wild hog, a species of armadillo, and a few wolves complete the catalogue. Pea and jungle fowl, duck, teal, snipe, florican, etc., can be had in season.

The geology has been only partially examined. The formation is

mostly gneissic, granite and trap dikes cropping up occasionally. The principal varieties of rock belonging to the gneiss which occur in the eastern part are, in the order of their importance and extent of development—(1) Hornblendic schists and rocks; (2) Quartzo-felspathic gneiss, massive or schistose; (3) Talcose and chloritic rocks (generally schistose, rarely massive); (4) Magnetic iron beds; (5) Crystalline limestones. Magnesite veins occur chiefly at the Chalk hills (so miscalled) near the foot of the Shevaroys. Pot-stone is found in several places. (*Vide* Vol. IV., Part 2, *Mem. Geo. Surv. of India.*) Magnetic iron occurs in practically inexhaustible quantities. Corundum and chromate of iron are also obtainable. The washings of some rivers yield gold, notably the Penner (more correctly Ponniár, so named on account of its golden sands). It is probable that gold may exist in the Hosúr *táluk*, where it borders on Mysore. There is no coal. Lime is available in sufficient quantities to serve as a flux in iron-smelting.

History.—The ancient history of the northern and southern parts of Salem District must be treated separately, as they formed parts of different kingdoms. The northern part was included in the kingdom of the Pallavas, who flourished in the fifth century A.D., and apparently long before, at their capital Conjevaram. When the Pallavas were finally overthrown by the Chola kings of Tanjore, in the ninth century A.D., this part of the country was the only portion remaining to them of their once extensive kingdom. The Pallavas were the excavators of the monolithic 'Rathas' at the Seven Pagodas, which fact points to the early supremacy of the dynasty. The Buddhist tope at Amravati may also be attributed to this dynasty. The boundaries of their kingdom, when at its zenith, probably extended from the Narbadá and the borders of Orissa on the north to the southern Penner on the south; and on the west from the northern extremity of the Western Gháts to the Bay of Bengal on the east.

The southern portions of Salem originally formed part of the ancient kingdom of Conga. This kingdom was confined within the limits of the present Districts of Salem and Coimbatore. A Tamil manuscript with the title of *Conga-desha Rájákkal*, or the 'Chronicle of the Kings of the Conga Country,' professes to give their history from about the commencement of the Christian era down to the beginning of the seventeenth century. The kings enumerated belong to two dynasties, the earlier line being of the Solar, and the later line of the Gangá race. The Solar race began with seven kings of the Ratha tribe, the name of the first being Víra Raya Chakravarti. The capital during this period was Skandápura. Conga, including the south of the modern District of Salem, was a seat of the manufacture of the finest steel from a very early age. It has been conjectured that the

ancient Egyptians used Indian steel for the tools with which they carved their hieroglyphs on obelisks and temples. It is recorded that when Alexander the Great was in India, Porus made a present of steel to him.

Under the second or Gangá dynasty the limits of the kingdom were greatly extended towards the north-west. The list of these kings given in the chronicles agrees, with very few variations, with the pedigree compiled from their published land-grants. The cause of the extinction of the earlier dynasty is not recorded; but probably the last Solar king lost his life in an attack on the Gangá chieftain of southern Mysore, who followed up his advantage by seizing the vacant throne of Conga. The third king of the Gangá dynasty, Hari Varmá, removed the capital from Skandapura to Talkád about 290 A.D.

The second period of the ancient history of Salem extends from the conquest of Conga by the Cholas, down to the rise of the Ballála kings of Karnata, a period of about two centuries. The Ballála kings may be regarded as the rulers of the kingdom from about 1069 A.D. Eight kings of this line ruled over Karnata, which included Salem. The latter District then became tributary to the kings of Vijayanagar about 1350, and continued to form part of their empire till their overthrow in 1565. Even after this downfall, all the southern portion of Vijayanagar was left in the hands of the old kings, forming still a very extensive dominion.

About the beginning of the seventeenth century Salem became a dependency of Madura. It was visited and mentioned by Robert de Nobilis in 1623. During the next century, Salem comes into prominence in connection with Haidar Alí's wars, many of the operations being conducted within the present District. In 1760, Haidar seized the BARAMAHAL, and made it a rallying point for his troops on their way to the war in Arcot. In 1767, the English, Nizám Alí, and the Maráthás, jointly attacked Haidar, and an English force attempted the reduction of the Báramahál, but without success. Nizám Alí then deserted the English and went over to Haidar. After a period of desultory warfare, confined chiefly to the Báramahál, Nizám Alí made overtures of peace to the English, and by a treaty in 1768 joined them, again abandoning Haidar. During this period the English captured in rapid succession most of the fortified places of Salem and Coimbatore Districts. Subsequently, Colonel Wood, who was in command of the English force, met with a series of reverses; and was superseded by Colonel Lang. This, however, did not prevent Haidar from retaking all the places previously captured by the English, and finally peace was concluded in 1769.

War broke out again with Haidar in 1780, and continued after his

death in 1782. Peace was concluded with his son Tipú in 1784. This only lasted till 1790, when war again broke out, chiefly owing to Tipú's attack on Travancore. An English force under Colonel Kelly invaded the Báramahál, which by the next year was almost completely in the hands of the English. The remaining operations, which were not connected with this part of the country, terminated in the treaty of 1792, by which, among other cessions, the whole of the present District of Salem (except the Hosúr *táluk*) comprising what was known as the Talághát and Báramahál, fell to the English. After the final defeat and death of Tipú in 1799, the Hosúr *táluk*, known as the Bálághát, also came into the possession of the English under the provisions of the Partition Treaty of Mysore.

The District of Salem, as at present composed, contains 9 *táluks;* of which two are directly under the Collector, three under the Sub-Collector, two form the Head Assistant's charge, and two the charge of the general Deputy Collector. Its limits are now identical with those of 1799, except that the Kangundi *zamíndárí*, north of the Pálár, was finally transferred to North Arcot in 1808.

Administrative History. — Immediately on the acquisition of the Talághát and Báramahál, Colonel (then Captain) Read was placed in charge, with Captains Graham, MacLeod, and Munro (afterwards Governor of Madras) as his assistants. He at once addressed himself to the survey of the District, and to the introduction of a uniform revenue system, which was fairly launched throughout this portion of the District in 1796, as a *ráyatwárí* system to be confirmed for ever. This, however, met with no favour at head-quarters, where the idea of leases on the *zamíndárí* system had been resolved on. The *zamíndárí* system was formerly unknown in Salem, but the Government ordered it to be introduced. In 1799, Read, with Munro as his secretary, followed the tide of war into Mysore, and never returned to the District. A new administrator succeeded them, and so faithfully carried out orders, that by 1805 the *zamíndárí* system was in full force everywhere, except in the Bálághát, which escaped owing to its being a recent acquisition, and, after being leased out for two years to two natives, was finally surveyed in 1804, since which time it has prospered. Great losses followed on the overthrow of Read's settlement. The 205 estates paying 16 *lákhs* of rupees (say £160,000) in 1805 had by 1821 been so reduced in value that they only paid 8 *lákhs*, which in 1836 fell to 5 *lákhs*, and in 1850 to 4½ *lákhs*, or say £45,000.

Various causes, into which it is needless to enter here, were at work to bring about this result; and a series of remedies, unsuccessful because they did not go to the root of the mischief, were tried. Of one thing, however, there can be no doubt, viz. that notwith-

standing all Read's care and zeal, he had in many cases over-assessed the soil. The *zamíndárs* had, before 1813, to some extent given satisfactory evidence that this was so, by reducing rates on 'wet' lands throughout by one-sixth, and on 'dry' land from one-eighth to one-fifth. The end soon came. Before the *zamíndárí* system had been in existence for five years, those in authority began to hesitate. Their first step in retreat from the false position which had been taken up was made in 1809, when, failing bidders for estates sold for arrears, the Collector was empowered to bring them under his own management, a policy extended in 1813 by permission to buy in such estates at auction on behalf of Government. This politic step was afterwards modified by a restriction of the bid to the amount of the arrears.

On such estates coming under Government management, the District officers had opportunities for more closely studying the causes which led their owners into bankruptcy, consequent on which the conviction became fixed that, to insure stability of revenue, a reduction in the demand was needed. This, however, was only done in a hesitating and partial manner. Thus, in 1816, the assessment in the southern part of the District was reduced generally by 10 per cent.; and in 1818, the Collector was empowered to make a discretional reduction not exceeding 30 per cent. These benefits touched the *ráyatwárí* lands only, and rightly so; for, apart from the fact that a reversion to the State as the direct landlord is the most important factor in securing prosperity to the tenantry of the District, the *zamíndárs* were even on equitable, much less on legal, grounds entitled to no consideration whatever, as, in fixing the *peshkash* (revenue) payable by them, the cultivated land alone had been taken into account, all the waste being made over free and for ever. In the present day it is hard, with telegraphic communication, and Salem within half a night's journey from Madras, to realize the darkness in which the authorities formerly were as to the state of the District. Even Munro, when Governor of Madras, than whom no one then living took more interest in the District, was ignorant of important changes which had been introduced into the revenue system.

The one thing plainly perceptible to the Madras authorities was that the revenue was diminishing and uncertain; the causes were unknown, or if known, wrong deductions were drawn from the facts. To stimulate the extension of cultivation, the suicidal panacea of the *kaul* tenure was resorted to in 1822. *Kaul*, ordinarily signifying an agreement of any kind, in the sense in which it is here used, indicates a tenancy under which the *ráyat*, on taking up fresh lands, pays no assessment for the first year, half rates for the second, and full rates for the third year. The terms of the tenancy may vary from this, but the principle is the same. The result was a foregone conclusion.

Ráyats already holding over-assessed or fully-assessed lands snapped greedily at the bait, and for the first two years or more, as the case might be, all went on prosperously; but in the year when Government should have reaped the full benefit of their concession, the *ráyats* turned round and relinquished their new holdings. Many were the recipes devised to avert the necessary consequence of the measure. The *kaul* tenure was prohibited unless the *pattá* land was retained; the *ráyats* should only resign good and bad lands in equal proportions, and might not cling to the one and despise the other. The system was doomed from its birth, and received its death-blow in 1850. As regards the over-assessed lands, the percentage reductions of 1816 to 1818, above referred to, affected the whole tract rateably, but had no operation towards effecting a reduction in cases where individual fields or holdings were over-taxed. Further reductions, but still only in the nature of a percentage reduction, were made in 1858 and 1859, and in respect of garden lands in 1864. But it was not until 1869 to 1874, when the new settlement now in force was introduced, that the Government demand was universally fixed on equitable and scientific principles. Under this revision, the area under cultivation has risen from 1,050,000 acres, assessed at £173,000, to 1,667,459 acres, assessed at £219,629.

Tenures.—The District contains three *pálaiyams* or *zamindárís* of importance,—Sulagiri, Bágalúr, and Berikái, all in the Hosúr *táluk*. There are also 148 *mittás* and a few *jágirs*. But the predominant tenure is *ráyatwárí*, the tenant being liable to ejectment by the Government only in case of failure to pay his revenue. Every year he has the option of throwing up his holding or any field in it, and his assessment is fixed for thirty years. A *mittádár* has the right of collecting the *paimáish tirvai* or settled rent, a share of which he pays to Government as *peshkash*. The tenure cannot be reconverted into *ráyatwárí*. If the *mittádár* is in arrears, his right to collect the *tirvai* can be sold by Government, which does not itself enter the market as a buyer. The *mittádárs* are addicted to leasing their villages, often selling them in shares, and the lessees again sub-letting; the Hindu system of undivided families multiplies the *mittádárs*, their middlemen, etc.; the latter and the sub-lessees often get into debt, their rights in the villages being sold by the civil courts; Musalmán inheritance so works in a couple of generations as to produce, instead of one original *mittádár*, twenty or thirty such, all owning different shares in the village, according to sex and relationship;—these and other causes all combined often render the *ráyat* uncertain as to who his landlord is. Perhaps two or three persons will at one and the same time, under colourable rights, distrain or attempt to distrain his property. For these reasons, the position of the *ráyat* in *mittá* villages is unenviable.

Added to this, he neither shares in the equitable revision of assessment which takes place in Government lands each thirty years, nor in the annual *jamábandi* remissions, granted by Government when drought, flood, excess of rain, blight, or other accidents impoverish their tenants. If the decision of the civil courts is rightly interpreted to mean that *ráyats* in *mittás* are liable to ejectment from year to year, this is not known to the landlords, or if they know it, they do not act on it.

Population.—In 1800, the population was returned at 612,871; in 1835, at 905,190; in 1850, at 1,195,367. Since that time, quinquennial Censuses have been taken; and in 1871, the first regular Census showed a population of 1,966,995, or an average of 5 persons to each house. The last Census, taken on the 17th February 1881, disclosed a total population of 1,599,595; so that in the decade since 1871 there was a decrease of 367,400, or nearly 19 per cent., due to the famine of 1876–78, when Salem was one of the Districts in which the distress was most severely felt. The pressure was felt in every *táluk*, but the centre of distress was in the Bálághát, Hosúr *táluk* alone losing 31·74 per cent. of its inhabitants. Krishnagiri, Dharmapuri, and Uttankarai *táluks* lost between 28 and 29 per cent.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 7653 square miles, distributed into 9 *táluks* or Sub-divisions. Classified according to sex, there were — males 778,483, and females 821,112. Classified according to age—under 15 years, boys 301,383, and girls 306,138; total children, 607,521, or 37·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 477,025, and females 514,897; total adults, 991,922, or 62·1 per cent. of the population: persons of unstated age, 152.

The density of population was 209 persons per square mile, as compared with 257 in 1871. In point of density, Salem ranks as the fourteenth District in Madras Presidency. Number of towns, 14; of villages, 3958; occupied houses, 311,393; unoccupied houses, 33,009. Towns and villages per square mile, 0·519; occupied houses per square mile, 41; persons per occupied house, 5·1.

According to religion, Hindus numbered 1,531,855, or 95·77 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 51,092, or 3·19 per cent.; Christians, 16,567, or 1·04 per cent.; Buddhists, 18; Jains, 46; and 'others,' 17. The majority of the Hindus, in the proportion of 2 to 1, professed the Sivaite as opposed to the Vishnuite faith; the other sects are only fractionally represented. The Sivaites numbered 998,853, and the Vishnuites 506,945. The Hindus were sub-divided according to caste as follows:—Bráhmans (priests), 28,393; Kshattriyas (warrior caste), 3175; Shetties (traders), 22,512; Vellálars (agricul-

43,343; Kanakkans (writers), 2529; Kaikalars (weavers), 77,994; Vanniáns (labourers), 391,287; Kushavans (potters), 11,949; Satánis (mixed castes), 40,335; Shembadavans (fishermen), 14,950; Shanans (toddy-drawers), 45,157; Ambattans (barbers), 17,086; Vanans (washermen), 20,142; Pariahs (out-castes), 211,856; and 'others,' 167,396.

The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consisted of—Labbays, 5409; Arabs, 9; Mughals, 27; Mappilas, 5; Patháns, 945; Sayyids, 1187; Shaikhs, 4532; and 'others,' 38,978. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned—Sunnís, 41,916; Shiás, 879; Wáhábís, 8; and 'others,' 8289.

The Christian population included—British born subjects, 80; other British subjects (not British born), 74; and other Europeans or Americans, 26. Eurasians numbered 445; native Christians, 15,782; and 'others,' 160. Adopting another method of classification, there were—Roman Catholics, 14,172, of whom 13,856 were native converts; Protestants, 707; and 'other Christian sects,' 1688. Since 1871, the Christian population has increased by 21¼ per cent.

As regards occupation, the Census distributed the male population into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind, 15,187; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 4492; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 9611; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 390,430; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 99,858; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 258,905.

Emigration is not considerable, but a few coolies go to Ceylon, the French colonies, and Burma. Large numbers seek work in the neighbouring Districts. Those who go beyond the adjoining Districts do not take their women. The balance of emigrants and immigrants, according to the Census returns, leaves a gain to Salem of about 6000.

Of the 3972 towns and villages in 1881, 1957 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 1180 from two to five hundred; 512 from five hundred to one thousand; 225 from one to two thousand; 63 from two to three thousand; 22 from three to five thousand; 9 from five to ten thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 more than fifty thousand.

SALEM, the chief town, is situated on the Tirumanimuttár, about 6 miles from the foot of the Shevaroys. It is a municipality, with a population (1881) of 50,667, and a revenue of £3592 in 1883-84. The following are the other towns:—VANIYAMBADI (15,426); TIRUPATUR (14,278); SHENDAMANGALAM (12,575); KRISHNAGIRI (8856); ATUR

Tiruchengod (5889); Hosur (5869); Namakal (5147); Thathayangarpet (4591); Edapadi (3942).

Reading-rooms or literary associations have been established at Salem, Yercaud (Yerkád), Hosúr, and Tirupatúr, and all other principal towns. The chief source of charity is the Thopur Chattram Fund, from which *saráis* (native inns), etc. are being provided all over the District. Those at Salem, Thopur, Jollarpet, Atúr, and Tirupatúr are among the best. Besides the hospital and dispensary at head-quarters, there are 11 dispensaries scattered over the District, and scarcely a large village is without its own cleaning and sanitary staff. Salem contains no shrine to compare in magnificence with those of Madura, Tanjore, or Srírangam; but pilgrims crowd to the sacred springs on the Tírthamalai, to Hanumatírtham on the Penner, to the pagoda at Hosúr, to the Adipadinettu at the falls of the Káveri (Cauvery), and to the festivals at Dharmapuri, Mecheri, Tiruchengod, Namakal, and other places. The chief shrines where the Malayális worship are on the Shevaroys and the Chitterimalai hills near Harúr. There are printing presses in the Collector's office and in the central jail. A private press, called the Patriot Press, publishes a local newspaper in vernacular bi-monthly.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, about 4,020,377 acres are occupied by Government villages, inclusive of *ináms*, the remainder being in *mittá* or *pálayam* villages. The total number of villages in the District is 3958, with 4722 hamlets, excluding those uninhabited, which number 745 and 623 respectively. According to the last quinquennial return, the cultivable area belonging to Government, exclusive of land reserved for public purposes, was 1,667,459 acres, assessed at £219,629. Holdings occupied 1,014,316 acres, assessed at £159,801. The number of registered *ráyats* was 245,484, with 47,477 sub-tenants, making a total of 292,961. The *pattas* numbered 161,870, of which 102,116 were single and 59,754 joint.

The staple crops are rice and *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), the latter being almost exclusively the food of the labouring class. The yield is assumed, for purposes of assessment, to be 641 Madras measures of paddy or unhusked rice, and 347 Madras measures of the other three staples for the Talághát *táluks*, the out-turn in the Báramahál and Bálághát *táluks* being the same for paddy, but somewhat less on the average for dry grains. *Ragí* grows to perfection in the Bálághát, and above the average in the Báramahál. *Kambu* or spiked millet (Pennisetum typhoideum) is about the same as in the Talághát; but gram, though remarkably fine, is an uncertain crop, and yields little more than half as much as the other staple grains. In 1883–84, cereals and millets occupied 935,795 acres; pulses, 218,299 acres; orchard and garden produce, 8225 acres; drugs and narcotics, 8639 acres; condi-

ments and spices, 11,182 acres; starches, 426 acres; sugars, 2864 acres; oil-seeds, 74,553 acres; indigo, 2538 acres; fibres, 20,669, of which 18,692 were under cotton : total, 1,283,190 acres.

The greater portion (82 per cent.) of the classified area of the District consists of red soil, the *regar* or black cotton-soil occupying 16 per cent. (in the northern *táluks*, 20 per cent.), and exceptional or permanently improved land, 2 per cent. A pair of oxen could manage a farm of 3 acres of 'dry,' but not more than an acre of 'wet' land. 'Wet' land is almost invariably ploughed by four, five, or six pairs of oxen working together in the field. If the owner has not enough of cattle of his own, he must hire or borrow them. On a holding of 2 acres of 'wet' and 3 acres of 'dry' land, the net profit in a fair year would not probably exceed £6 per annum, or about 10s. a month. The position of the poorer cultivators may be gauged from the fact that they will desert their farms in numbers if a wage of 8s. a month is not assured them. The majority of the peasantry are in debt. The habit of indebtedness is so ingrained in their nature, that if they all started fair to-morrow, 50 per cent. would be in debt again in a year.

One man is held to be sufficient for the ordinary daily labour on a farm of 3 acres of 'wet,' or 6 acres of 'dry' land, if assisted in the heavy work of planting, weeding, reaping, and threshing. His wages would be 480 measures of grain per annum = £1, 5s., plus an annual money payment of 6s. (the wages in the northern being lower than in the southern *táluks*). Twenty-seven measures of seed are required for an acre of 'wet,' and 6 measures for an acre of 'dry' land. Irrigated crops are weeded twice if sown broadcast, but once only if transplanted, 'Dry' crops are weeded only once. Manuring is applied, as a rule, by treading in leaves on 'wet,' and penning out sheep on 'dry' land. For 'wet' lands, the average is 120 bundles of wild indigo or other leaves per acre, and this is supplied annually to all fields thought worth manuring. Eight pens of 200 sheep each, at a cost of 4 measures of grain per diem, is the usual allowance per acre for 'dry' lands. The implements said to be required for a farm of 3 acres of irrigated or 6 acres of 'dry' land are a plough, a *mamuty*, an axe and chopper, three small weeding hoes, and three sickles. The highest Government 'wet' rate in the District is £1, 8s. per acre, and the lowest is £1, 3s. 1½d., exclusive of local cesses, the highest for 'dry' lands being 10s., and the lowest 6d. The cost of cultivating an acre of good black loam is about 18s. on irrigated, and 7s. 6d. on unirrigated lands in the northern *táluks*, the rates in the Talágh́át being somewhat higher, or 18s. 6d. and 9s. 6d. respectively.

The normal rates of wages for unskilled labour are—for men, 3½d.; for women, 2¼d.; for children (male or female), 1¼d. The Wadder

or navvy caste get twice as much, but they generally do taskwork, by which they gain more than by daily wages. The wages of a working goldsmith vary with the value of the materials, but may be taken on an average at 1s. per diem. A blacksmith gets 1s.; a carpenter from 1s. to 1s. 3d.; bricklayers from 9d. to 1s. 3d. The rates of wages of unskilled labour in 1883-84 varied from 3½d. in towns to 2½d. per diem in villages; and of skilled labour from 1s. 1½d. in towns to 9d. a day in villages.

During the ten years ending 1874, the prices at Salem town per *garce* of 9360 lbs. avoirdupois, in February and March, when the *ráyats* sell, averaged £10, 6s. for rice, and £11, 10s. for *cholam* or great millet (Sorghum vulgare). The price of produce at the end of 1883-84, per *maund* of 80 lbs., was—rice, 5s. 0½d.; *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), 2s. 1d.; *cholam*, 2s. 5½d.; *kambu*, 2s. 2½d.; *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), 2s.; wheat, 6s. 6¾d.; gram, 4s. 0¾d.; salt, 6s. 0½d.; sugar, 7s. 1d.; cotton, 16s. In 1883-84, the live stock and implements of agriculture were—buffaloes, 43,674; bullocks, 191,541; cows, 273,137; asses, 4770; goats, 293,895; sheep, 412,692; horses, 450; mules, 13; ponies, 1868; pigs, 15,904; carts, 8893; and ploughs, 108,653.

Natural Calamities.—In May 1872, and again in May 1874, the District suffered from cyclones which, though they did not, owing to absence of cultivation in those months, do much damage to crops, caused terrible mortality among cattle, and breached several tanks. In the autumn of 1874, heavy floods occurred, notably in the Pálár and the basin between the Pálár and the Yelagiri hills. Many tanks were breached, and much property was damaged. The railway line was destroyed in several places, and a considerable portion of the town of Vániambádi was swept away. The excessive north-west monsoon of 1877 drowned the crops. In 1878, another great fall of rain fell east of the Mukanármalai, and washed away the railway embankment. The cyclone of November 1880 played havoc in the Atúr *táluk*. Every anicut was washed away, as also the large bridge on the trunk road near Thalaivásal; some 20 tanks were breached and many houses destroyed. The flood came in the day-time, and only six lives were lost. The damage done was estimated at £5000.

Blights are not uncommon in Salem, and locusts, caterpillars, and other insects devour the crops. The Pálár, when in flood, occasionally causes loss to the river-side landholders; and breached tanks, especially gener[illegible] a chain of tanks gives way together, cause damage, but more Th[illegible]lly to property than to life.

[illegible] severest famine of early years was that of 1833, when prices than [illegible]1 per cent.; 1845-46 was a year of high prices, as also was millets [illegible] In the famine of 1866, the following prices were reached garden pro[illegible]tember and December:—Rice, 15s. to 17s. 6d. per cwt.;

cholam, 8s. 6d. to 12s. per cwt. Works and relief houses were provided by Government for the needy.

But this and all previous famines on record are dwarfed by the terrible calamity of 1876-78. There had been signs and warnings by which this might have been foreseen. The north-east monsoon failed both in 1873 and 1874. In 1875, the north-east monsoon was almost a total failure, especially the latter part of it; and in 1876, the south-west and north-east monsoons, on both of which the District depends for its water-supply, failed almost completely. The pinch began to be felt in October 1876, but people still hoped. By November, the failure of the monsoon became an established fact; grain dealers took alarm, and prices rose at a bound. In August 1877, inferior rice had risen to a rupee (2s.) for 11 lbs., and other grains when procurable were nearly the same price: as in ordinary years the price is from 20 lbs. to 30 lbs. for a rupee, the keen distress may be realized. During the first thirteen months of famine the mortality was 180,000, the average death-rate in other years being 50,000. It is estimated that altogether the District lost 10 per cent. of its population. Distress may be said to set in when normal prices are doubled, any rise beyond that rate involving famine.

One result of the late famine was to call attention to the neglected means of storing water. The Pálár and Káveri (Cauvery) might be utilized to a far greater extent than at present, and the Penner (Ponniyár) carries untold wealth into the Bay of Bengal. In so far as the increased wealth of the population gives them more reserve to draw upon in time of scarcity, improved irrigation might do much for the District; but it cannot render certain a capricious rainfall, on which the majority of the tanks depend, and it cannot secure grass for cattle. The neglect of forestry is probably responsible for much. In the middle of the 16th century, the whole District was more or less a forest; it is not now easy in many places to find shade for a noon-day halt. Were it not for the railway, this last famine would probably have carried off a half of the population, instead of the 204,590 who perished from insufficient food, and the subsequent diseases consequent thereon.

Industries and Trade.—The chief industry of the District is weaving, which is carried on in almost every large town or village. The weavers of Salem and Rázípur are especially noted. Carpets of great beauty and superior workmanship are made in the Salem jail. Good iron and steel are made, but only on a small scale; an attempt to utilize the mineral wealth of the District by European capital having failed owing to the cost of charcoal. In Salem town there are several cutlers whose wares are famed for temper and finish throughout India. Sugar, cotton, hides, indigo, saltpetre, salt, grains, areca-nut, coir,

jungle produce, coffee, clothes, etc., pass freely in and out of the District, but there is no trustworthy information regarding the value of imports and exports.

Communications.—There are about 1633 miles of road in the District, on which the expenditure in 1883–84 was £13,656; but the state of the roads is not good. The south-west line of the Madras Railway runs for a distance of 131 miles within the District. The principal hill passes are—the Chengama Pass, by which South Arcot is reached from Singárapet; the Morúrpatti *ghát*, which lies between the Shevaroys and the Thopur Hills; the Thopur and Mukanúr *ghát*, through which traffic reaches Dharmapuri from the south-east and east; the Ráyakottai Pass, which gives access from Krishnagiri to the Bálághát; the Manjanadi and Kottáipatti Passes, by which Uttankarai is accessible from Salem and Atúr respectively, on the south; the Anchittai *ghát*, almost impracticable, by which the Bálághát portion of the Hosúr *táluk* communicates with the valley of the Káveri.

Administration.—The imperial revenue of the District for 1883–84 was £261,292, of which land revenue contributed £212,051. Excise came next with £30,388; and stamps, £16,271. The other items of receipt are small, the forests being credited with only £9880. The total revenue in 1805–06 is returned at £191,786, of which the land yielded £182,348; in 1850–51 the total revenue was £196,693, and the land revenue £177,535; in 1870–71 the total revenue was £302,091, and the land revenue £232,191.

There are at present 36 magistrates' courts and 10 civil courts, including those of the revenue officers, covenanted and uncovenanted, empowered to hear rent suits. The number of covenanted officers is 5, including the Assistant Collector, who has no separate charge. Exclusive of village watchmen, the District police in 1883–84 consisted of 2 officers, 18 inspectors, and 1032 constables, or 1 policeman to every 7·24 square miles and every 1549 of the population. A special police, raised to control the spirit of outrage which was evidenced by the Salem riots, consisted of 1 inspector and 202 constables. It is not likely to be permanently retained. The District has 1 central and 17 subsidiary jails, containing (in 1883–84) 5113 prisoners, and costing £4266.

The education of the masses is chiefly got at the *payal* schools, where elementary teaching is given after a time-honoured but unscientific fashion. In 1871, according to Census returns, there were only 190 schools in the District; but this cannot be supposed to include the *payal* schools. The Local Fund Act, passed in 1871, gave a stimulus to popular education by providing the funds for its extension; and in 1883–84 there were 511 schools, either belonging to Government or aided, which were attended by 9368 pupils. In the returns furnished

for the first edition of this work, it was estimated that about 7200 children receive elementary education from unaided *payal* schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 18,032 boys and 1091 girls as under instruction, besides 50,349 males and 2857 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. Regarding missionary effort, the field is divided between the London Mission, the French priests under the Vicar-Apostolic of Pondicherri, and, to a small extent, the Lutheran Evangelistic Mission. The Roman Catholics outnumber the rest.

Medical Aspects.—The average monthly rainfall for 22 years ending 1881, as registered at Salem town, was as follows:—January, 0·36 inch; February 0·09 inch; March, 0·85 inch; April, 2·17 inches; May, 4·34 inches; June, 3·15 inches; July, 3·89 inches; August, 5·26 inches; September, 6·15 inches; October, 6·94 inches; November, 2·26 inches; and December, 0·62 inch: yearly average, 36·08 inches. The average mean temperature for 12 years ending 1881 was 80·6° F., ranging from 75·3° F. in December to 86·8° F. in April. On the lower hill ranges, fever prevails for a great part of the year. Strangers, especially if they drink the water, are most liable to attack, though the anæmic faces and enlarged spleens of the acclimatized population show that they have by no means an immunity from the scourge. In the plains, during the rainy season, large tracts are liable to a peculiarly weakening sort of fever, which in some years causes considerable mortality. The cause of this is not exactly known, as the fever does not always appear under given conditions; and occasionally one particular locality, noted for fever, may be free, while another, reputed for healthiness, may become the scene of an epidemic. Cholera rages through the District at times. The virulence of the disease may be estimated from one example. In 1875, in the village of Kanakampatti, in three days 52 died out of a population of 200. The deaths from cholera, in 1875–76, were 15,487; in 1876–77, 45,162; and in 1877, from July to November, 8002. The last outbreak in 1883 was attended with a loss of 5015 lives. Small-pox has to a great extent been stamped out, though during the famine, when the population was peculiarly predisposed to disease, exceptional mortality occurred. Dengue was prevalent in the latter part of 1872. Leprosy is not common. Cattle disease is rarely absent, rinderpest and foot-and-mouth disease being the most common forms. [For further information regarding Salem, see the *Manual of Salem District*, by Mr. H. Le Fanu, C.S., 2 vols. (Madras Government Press, 1883). Also the *Manual of the Administration of the Madras Presidency*, 3 vols. (Madras Government Press, 1885); the *Madras Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Government.]

Salem.—West central *táluk* of Salem District, Madras Presidency;

lying between 11° 23′ and 11° 59′ N. lat., and 77° 49′ and 78° 34′ E. long. Area, 1072 square miles. Population (1881) 327,178, namely, males 159,902, and females 167,276; occupying 61,612 houses, in 3 towns and 488 villages. Hindus number 314,101; Muhammadans, 7313; Christians, 5739; and 'others,' 25. The *táluk* is very diversified in aspect, containing hill and dale, untilled tracts and prosperous cultivation. Among the products of the *táluk*, mention should be made of coffee, tea, and indigo. The great mass of the agricultural classes are poor. The trading classes are somewhat better off. Weaving is carried on to a great extent; but the weaver class suffered cruelly in the famine of 1876–78. Jewellers, cloth merchants, and grain merchants drive a good trade. The south-west line of Madras Railway traverses the *táluk*. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 19; regular police, 355. Land revenue, £40,347.

Salem (*Selam*).—Chief town of Salem District, Madras, and a municipality, with the courts of the District Judge, Magistrate, and *munsif*, a central jail, 2 churches, memorial hall, schools, hospital, etc. Lat. 11° 39′ 10″ N., long. 78° 11′ 47″ E. Population (1881) 50,667, namely, males 24,584, and females 26,083. Hindus number 44,614; Muhammadans, 4669; Christians, 1382; and 'others,' 2. Nearly 90 per cent. of the population are Hindus. The town is straggling and extensive, being about three miles long and two broad. The river Tirumanimutár divides the native town into two quarters. The Europeans live in a suburb named Hastampatti. The railway station lies in another suburb, Suramangalam, 3½ miles distant. On the eastern side is Salem proper, where most of the merchants and officials live; on the south is Gugai, the weaving quarter. The western side comprises the fort (now no longer existing) and Shevapett, the latter named from a fair held there on Thursdays. Adjacent to the fort are most of the public buildings. The *mahál* in the fort was originally the palace or residence of one of the tributary chiefs of Salem. Salem is a busy trading place, with a considerable weaving industry. The town is clean, and well cared for. Its old notoriety for endemic fever and cholera has disappeared before the sanitary improvements of the municipality. The town is prettily situated, 900 feet above sea-level, in a long valley with the Shevaroy Hills towering above. These hills are only 6 miles distant, and the ascent to the plateau is only 7 miles. Though never a place of any military strength, its position in a much contested District has made it the scene of frequent fighting. It was first captured by Captain Wood in 1768. The municipal income of Salem in 1883–84 was £3592; incidence of taxation, 1s. 5d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Salem (*Chinna Salem*, or *Little Salem*).—Village in Kallakurchi

táluk, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 38′ N., long. 78° 55′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 4855, dwelling in 785 houses.

Sáletekrí.—*Zamíndárí* or revenue-free estate in Bálághát District, Central Provinces; comprising 38 villages; area, 284 square miles, chiefly hilly. Population (1881) 5809. By far the greater part of the *zamíndárí* is uncultivable hill and jungle. At the time of settlement, only 7 villages, with an area of 12½ square miles, entered into engagements for the full period of settlement, the remainder being included in jungle lands, the assessment on which is revised about every three years. With the exception of a few villages lying along the banks of the Son (Soane), the whole estate lies from 1800 to 2000 feet above sea-level. The chief is a descendant of one of the old Gond families, whose principal wealth used to be derived from periodical forays upon the villages in the plains. The country produces timber and bamboos of all descriptions. This chiefship was probably one of the grants made for guarding the passes of the hill country, and has remained in the same family for many generations. The principal village is 50 miles south-east of Búrha.

Salímpur.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated 20 miles from Lucknow city, on the road to Sultánpur. Population (1881) 2078, including some adjacent hamlets. Picturesquely situated on broken and high ground overlooking the Gumti river, the approach to it lying across a ravine spanned by a long bridge built since British annexation. Small Government school.

Salimpur.—Village in Amroha *tahsíl*, Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 5′ 45″ N., and long. 78° 41′ E. Population (1881) 2685. Weekly market on Thursdays. Numerous ruins of temples and tombs exist in the neighbourhood.

Sálimpur-Majhauli.—Two adjacent villages in Deoria *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* MAJHAULI-SALIMPUR.

Sálkhiá.—Northern suburb of HOWRAH, the chief town of Húglí District, Bengal. The inhabitants are largely engaged in river traffic, and as labourers in the docks, mills, and East Indian Railway. Sálkhiá also contains a large number of shopkeepers and a permanent market. Along the river-side are several dockyards. A ferry steamer plies daily between Sálkhiá and Calcutta.

Sálnadí.—River of Bengal.—*See* SALANDI.

Salon.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Rái Bareli District, Oudh, lying between 25° 49′ and 26° 19′ N. lat., and between 81° 16′ and 81° 39′ E. long., and comprising the three *parganás* of Salon, Parshádepur, and Rokha Jais. Bounded on the north by Digbijáiganj *tahsíl*, on the east by Ráipur and Partábgarh *tahsíls*, on the south by Fatehpur District in the North-Western Provinces, and on the west by the Rái

Bareli *tahsíl.* Area, 433 square miles, or 277,101 acres, of which 143,294 acres are under cultivation. Population (1881) 245,232, namely, males 121,151, and females 124,081. Hindus number 215,969; Muhammadans, 29,240; Jains, 13; and 'others,' 10. Average density of population, 566 persons per square mile. Number of towns and villages, 457, of which 125 are *tálukdárí*, 139 *zamíndárí*, and 193 *pattidárí*. Land revenue, £28,678. In 1885, Salon *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 31 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 781.

Salon.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; recently transferred from Partábgarh District. A picturesque and interesting tract, bounded on the south by the Ganges and on the north by Parshádepur *parganá*. It is also watered by the Sái river, and is covered with jungle, in which the Náin *tálukdárs* and other freebooters in the time of native rule built their forts. Wild cattle were formerly found in large numbers. The banks of the river are steep and covered with brushwood. Area, 225 square miles, or 144,193 acres, of which 89,224 acres are under cultivation. Land revenue, £14,790. Population (1881) 127,122, namely, males 63,225, and females 63,897. The Kanhpuria clan of Rájputs are the principal landholders, owning 98 out of the 287 villages comprising the *parganá*. Of the 287 villages, 47 are *tálukdárí*, 109 *zamíndárí*, and 131 *pattidárí*.

Salon.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Salon *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated on the road from Partábgarh to Rái Bareli town, in lat. 26° 1′ 40″ N., and long. 81° 29′ 50″ E. Pleasantly situated amid groves of mango and palm trees. Formerly a flourishing place, but now much reduced. Population (1881) 4777, namely, 2492 Muhammadans and 2285 Hindus, residing in 1026 mud-built and 85 masonry houses. Ten mosques; one Hindu temple. Government school. Average annual *bázár* sales, £1000. Salon was in ancient times a famous stronghold of the Bhars, the aboriginal rulers of the country. Attached to the town is a revenue-free estate worth £2500 a year, granted as an endowment by the Emperor Aurangzeb, and confirmed by the British Government. The present holder of the estate is Sháh Muhammad Mehndi Atá.

Sálor Hirapur.—Village in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2431, namely, Hindus, 2251; Muhammadans, 89; Jains, 57; and non-Hindu aborigines, 34.

Salsette.—Large island to the north of Bombay, forming the Salsette Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency; extending 16 miles from Bhandára northwards to the Bassein inlet, and connected with Bombay Island by bridge and causeway. Lat. 19° 2′ 30″ to 19° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 51′ 30″ to 73° 3′ E. Area, 241 square miles. Population (1872) 93,324; (1881) 108,149, namely, males 58,540,

and females 49,609; occupying 16,869 houses, in 3 towns and 110 villages. Hindus number 74,736; Muhammadans, 7036; and 'others,' 26,377. Along the centre of the island, from north to south, runs a broad range of hills, which after subsiding into the plain near Kurla, crops up again in the southernmost point of the island at Trombay. The central and highest, Thána peak, is 1530 feet above sea-level; on the north is a detached, sharp peak, 1500 feet high. Spurs from the main range run west towards the sea, while the low lands are much intersected by tidal creeks, which especially on the north-west split the sea-face of the Sub-division into small islands. There are no large fresh-water streams; but the supply of water from wells is of fair quality, and pretty constant. The staple crop is rice; and most of the uplands are reserved for grass for the Bombay market. The coast abounds in cocoa-nut groves, and the palmyra palm grows plentifully over most of the island. This beautiful island is rich in rice-fields, diversified by jungles and studded with hills. The ruins of Portuguese churches, convents, and villas attest its former importance, and its antiquities at Keneri still form a subject of interest. Eighteen estates, consisting of 53 villages, were granted in Salsette by the East India Company; some freehold, and others on payment of rent, and liable to assessment. The lines of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, traverse the Sub-division.

Seized by the Portuguese early in the 16th century, Salsette should have passed to the English, together with Bombay Island, as part of the marriage portion of the queen of Charles II. The Portuguese in 1662, however, contested its alleged transfer under the marriage treaty, and it was not till more than a century afterwards that possession was obtained. The Maráthás took it from the declining Portuguese in 1739. The English captured it from the Maráthás in December 1774, and it was formally annexed to the East India Company's dominions in 1782 by the treaty of Salbái.

Salsette affords a deeply interesting field for the geologist and natural historian, and it occupies several paragraphs in the official *Manual of the Geology of India*. It will ever be associated with the name of Victor Jacquemont, as it formed the scene of his last labours; and from its jungles the brilliant Frenchman carried away the fever of which he shortly afterwards died at Bombay.

The cave architecture of Salsette deserves notice. The great *chaitya* at Keneri, however, is pronounced by Fergusson to be merely a bad copy of the Karli cave. It belongs to the beginning of the 5th century, but nine of its *vihâras* seem to be of earlier date. Salsette had, however, a sanctity of its own early in the 4th century as containing a tooth of Buddha; at the period, says Fergusson, 'when these relics were revolu-

tionizing the Buddhist world—at least at two diametrically opposite points of the coast of India, at Purí, and in this island. It may have been in consequence of the visit of this relic that the island became holy; and it may have been because it was an island that it remained undisturbed by the troubles of the mainland, and that the practice of excavating caves lasted longer here than in any series above described. Be this as it may, the caves here go straggling on till they fade by almost imperceptible degrees into those of the Hindu religion. The Hindu caves of Montpezir, Kanduti, and Amboli are so like them, and the change takes place so gradually, that it is sometimes difficult to draw the line between the two religions.'

Of the total area of 241 square miles, 37 square miles are occupied by lands of alienated villages. In 1879–80, the holdings numbered 8808, with an average area of 6⅕ acres, paying an average Government assessment of £1, 12s. 3d. In 1880–81, 23,243 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 234 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 22,094 acres, of which 21,952 acres were under rice. In 1884, the Sub-division contained 4 civil and 9 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 197 men, inclusive of police at head-quarters. Land revenue (1883), £14,723. The average annual rainfall for the thirteen years ending 1881 was 97·6 inches. Head-quarters at THANA.

Salt Range.—Hill system in Jehlam (Jhelum), Sháhpur, and Bannu (Bunnoo) Districts, Punjab, deriving its name from its extensive deposits of rock-salt. Lat. 32° 41′ to 32° 56′ N., and long. 71° 42′ to 73° E. The main chain commences in the lofty hill of Chel, 3701 feet above the sea, which is formed by the convergence of three spurs cropping up from the Jehlam river, and divided from the Himálayan outliers only by the intervening river valley. The most northern of these spurs rises abruptly from the river bank at Sultánpur, and runs nearly parallel with the Jehlam at a distance of 25 miles, till it joins the main chain after a course of 40 miles. It bears the local name of the Nílí Hills. The second spur, known as the Rotás range, runs half-way between the Nílí Hills and the river, parallel with both. It contains the famous fort of Rotás, and the hill of Tilla, the sanitarium of Jehlam District, with an elevation of 3242 feet above sea-level. The third or Pabbi spur rises south of the Jehlam river, dips for a while on approaching the river valley, and rises once more on the northern bank, till it finally unites with the two other chains in the central peak of Chel. Thence the united range runs westward in two parallel ridges, till it culminates in the mountain of Sakeswar, in Sháhpur District, which has an elevation of 5010 feet above sea-level. Between these lines of hills, and topped by their highest summits, lies an elevated and fertile table-land, picturesquely intersected by ravines and peaks. In

its midst nestles the beautiful lake of Kallar Kahár. The streams which take their rise in the table-land, however, become brackish before reaching the lowlands.

The beds of salt, from which the range derives its name, occur in the shape of solid rock on the slopes of this table-land, and form the largest known deposits in the world. The mineral is quarried at the MAYO MINES, in the neighbourhood of the village of Kheura, a few miles north-east of Pind Dádan Khán, in Jehlam District; at WARCHA in Sháhpur, and at KALABAGH in Bannu District. The great bulk of the salt is excavated from the Mayo Mines, which, during the 35 years ending 1883-84, have yielded a total out-turn of 40,712,943 *maunds*, or about 18,750 tons, paying a Government revenue in the shape of duty of £8,103,984. The supply is practically inexhaustible. In 1883-84, of an entire out-turn of 1,605,671 *maunds*, or 57,886 tons, from the Salt Range, 1,332,064 *maunds*, or 48,763 tons, were from the Mayo Mines. The total receipts in the shape of duty in 1883-84, from the Mayo, Wárcha, and Kálabágh mines, amounted to £330,832, and the charges to £27,879, leaving a net revenue of £302,953. The construction of a permanent bridge across the Jehlam river at or near Pind Dádan Khán, in place of the present bridge of boats, now under the consideration of Government, will bring the Mayo Mines into direct railway communication with the rest of India, and avoid the delay and loss at present caused by transhipment.

Coal also occurs in the Salt Range both in oolitic and tertiary strata; the former at Kálabágh, employed as a fuel for the Indus steamers, and the latter between Jalálpur and Pind Dádan Khán. It is of inferior quality, however, consisting of a brown lignite, difficult to set on fire, and yielding a very large proportion of ash.

From Jehlam District, the Salt Range stretches into Sháhpur and Bannu. The long spur which projects into Sháhpur terminates in the hill of Sakeswar, and comprises a number of separate rock-bound alluvial basins, the largest of which, the Sún and Khabbakki valleys, occupy the northern half, while the south consists of a broken country, cut up into tiny glens and ravines by a network of limestone ridges and connecting spurs. In the northern portion of the range, the drainage gathers into small lakes, and trees stud the face of the country; but southward, the streams flow through barren and stony gorges, interspersed with detached masses of rock, and covered with the stunted alkaline plants which grow on soil impregnated with salt. The Bannu portion of the range runs north-westward towards the Indus, which it meets at Mári, opposite KALABAGH, and rising again on the western side, is continued in the KHATTAK-MAIDANI HILLS. The scenery throughout the Range is rugged and often sublime, but wanting in softness and beauty. In many parts it becomes simply barren and

uninviting. Besides salt and coal, many other valuable minerals occur in these hills.

Salt-Water Lake (or *Dhápá*).—Lake in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated about 5 miles east of Calcutta, between the Húglí and Bidyádharí rivers, and covering an area of about 30 square miles. Lat. 22° 28′ to 22° 36′ N., and long. 88° 25′ 30″ to 88° 30′ 30″ E. It contains a section of the Inner Sundarbans Passage for boats bound to Calcutta *viâ* Báliágháta. The neighbourhood of the Salt-Water Lake is intersected by innumerable watercourses and rivers, which flood the country at spring-tides. A part of the lake is now in course of reclamation, by the sewage of Calcutta being deposited in it.

Salumbar.—Town in the State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rájputána; situated 30 miles south of Udaipur town. Population (1881) 5574, namely, Hindus 4831, and Muhammadans 743. The residence of the most powerful of the feudatories of the State, the head of the Chandáwat clan of Rájputs. Salumbar gives its name to an estate comprising 109 villages. A masonry wall surrounds the town, which is protected on the north by lofty and picturesque hills, one of which, immediately overlooking it, is surmounted by a fort and outworks still in good repair. An artificial lake, overlooked by the chief's palace, lies to the west of the town.

Sálúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division and *zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 64 square miles. Population (1881) 80,466, namely, males 39,756, and females 40,710. Hindus number 79,701; Muhammadans, 727; Christians, 3; and 'others,' 35. Number of houses, 17,255; villages, 155. The *zamíndár* was originally feudatory to Jaipur (Jeypore), and afterwards to Vizianagram. The last-named confiscated the *zamíndárí* in 1774, but the Company restored it to the old family twenty years later. The *zamíndár* pays a *peshkash* or fixed revenue of £3599; total rental, £11,588.

Sálúr.—Chief town of Sálúr *táluk* and *zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 18° 30′ 40″ N., long. 83° 14′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 11,856, namely, males 5746, and females 6110. Hindus number 11,426; Muhammadans, 425; Christians, 3; and 'others,' 2. Number of houses, 2564. Sálúr is the residence of the *zamíndár*. Sub-magistrate's court, post-office, dispensary, and good school.

Salwín (*Salween*).—River of Burma, with a general north and south course. The source of this river has never been explored; but the best authorities agree in stating that it is in proximity to the source of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), far up in the snowy range which lies eastward of Assam in lat. 28° N., and forms part of the Himálayan system of mountains. After traversing Yunan,

a Chinese Province, and the Shan and Karen-ní States lying south of it, the Salwín enters Lower Burma at its extreme north-eastern corner, and for some distance, as far as the Thaung-yin river, marks the eastern limits of the Province. In this part of its course, the Salwín is a broad, swift stream, navigable by boats, and flowing between high, densely wooded mountains. Farther south, these gorges become narrower; and near the mouth of the Thaung-yin, the breadth of the stream contracts so much that at places its bed does not occupy more than 30 yards.

A few miles lower down, and about 100 miles from the sea, are the great rapids, formed by a bar of rocks stretching completely across the river, and impassable even by canoes during the dry season. In the rains, when the Salwín is swollen by the vast volume of water brought down from the extensive tract of country which it and its tributaries drain, the current is so strong, and the violence of its efforts to pass the rocky ledge so great, that even massive logs of timber are dashed to pieces. Farther south are other but less formidable rapids, impassable in the rains. Below, there are numerous islands and shoals covered during the floods, when the water rises 30 feet. A few miles lower down, after the Salwín has received the Yun-za-lin from the west, the hills on the eastern bank recede, and those on the western diminish considerably in altitude; and the river traverses a more open and level country, with outcrops of limestone on both banks, rising abruptly out of the plain into lofty serrated ridges.

At Maulmain, the Salwín receives from the eastward the Gyaing, formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bwe and the Haung-tharaw, and the Attaran, which joins the Gyaing at its mouth. Here the Salwín splits into two mouths—the northern, flowing between Bí-lú-gywún and the old town of Martaban, is unnavigable now by reason of sandbanks, but some centuries ago was the principal entrance. The southern branch flows past Maulmain, and falls into the sea at Amherst by a mouth 7 miles wide. By this channel vessels of the largest size can reach Maulmain, but navigation is rendered difficult by the shifting of the sands.

Vast quantities of teak from British and foreign forests are annually floated down the Salwín, and shipped at Maulmain for export. The timber is dragged into the forest streams by elephants, marked, and then washed in the rains into the Salwín, by which it is carried down in whirling masses until checked by a rope stretched across the river at Kyo-dan, about 56 miles above Maulmain. Large numbers of salvors assemble here in the season, and raft as many logs as they can, to be claimed by the owners, who pay salvage.

The area of the Salwín basin is 62,700 square miles; it is 800 miles in length, but seldom more than 100 miles in breadth. The upper part

is conterminous on the east with that of the Me-kong or Cambodia river; lower down, it is bounded by the Meinam river, which belongs to Siam. The length of the main stream of the Salwín is estimated at 750 miles.

Salwín Hill Tracts.—British District in Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; extending from the northern frontier southwards to Kaw-ka-rit on the Salwín river, and occupying the whole of the country between that river on the east and the Paung-laung Mountains on the west. On the north it is bounded by Karen-ní (Kareng-nee), on the east by Zin-me, on the south by Amherst and Shwe-gyin, and on the west by Shwe-gyin and Taung-ngú (Toung-ngoo). Estimated area, 4646 square miles. Population (1881) 30,009 souls. From the annexation of Pegu until 1872, the Hill Tracts formed a Sub-division of Shwe-gyin District, but in that year they were erected into a separate jurisdiction. The administrative head-quarters are at PA-PUN.

Physical Aspects.—The whole country is a wilderness of mountains. Even the valley of the Yun-za-lin, the principal river after the Salwín, is, strictly speaking, only a long winding gorge. The direction of the mountains, of which there are three principal ranges, is generally north-north-west and south-south-east, but the spurs from the main system appear to be thrown in bewildering eccentric masses. The slopes are so precipitous, and so densely wooded, that the passage by laden animals is in many places impossible, and that of travellers on foot difficult and fatiguing in the extreme. It is through these hills that Shan caravans come down annually to Rangoon and Maulmain; and with the exception of the routes used by them, there are no roads over which laden bullocks can pass, baggage being carried on men's shoulders.

The country is drained by three principal rivers—the SALWIN, the YUN-ZA-LIN, and the BI-LIN—fed by numerous mountain torrents rushing down narrow ravines, over rocks and boulders, on their way to the larger streams, which partake of the nature of their impetuous tributaries, and dash themselves in foam over masses of rock, or whirl in wild eddies through ravines shut in by beetling crags and gigantic forest trees, covered with brilliant flowers or creepers. When these rivers emerge into the low country they entirely lose their picturesqueness, and sink into muddy streams, with no trace left of their former state but the rapidity of their currents. The Yun-za-lin is navigable in the dry season as far as Pa-pun. Within the limits of this District, the Bí-lin is impracticable, except for rafts and small boats. The Salwín is impeded by impassable rapids.

In the mountainous region the soil is reddish clay. Outcrops of gneist shale are met with in places, also indurated sandstone. Limestone occurs in isolated cavernous hills and along the Livehlok range,

where it contains large quantities of rich galena. A lead mine has been opened on the Livehlok, the working of which had not, up to 1882–83, been regularly commenced. The valley of Yun-za-lin is extensive, and contains vast quantities of valuable timber. The soil is rich loam in parts, and nearer the river it appears to be alluvial clay and very fertile. Great facilities exist for irrigating the land in this valley, as perennial streams flow down at right angles to the river at short intervals.

The population in 1872 was returned at 26,117; in 1877, at 26,649; and in 1881, at 30,009, namely, males 15,509, and females 14,500. Number of villages, 209; occupied houses, 6387; unoccupied houses, 57. Average density of population, 6·46 persons per square mile. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 6497, and girls 6007; total children, 12,504, or 41·7 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 9012, and females 8493; total adults, 17,505, or 58·3 per cent.

According to religion, the population was thus distributed in 1881—Buddhists, 5100; Nat-worshippers, or persons of indigenous religion, 24,738; Hindus, 35; Muhammadans, 105; and Christians, 31. By race, the inhabitants are almost entirely Karens; a few Shans are settled in the neighbourhood of Pa-pun. The eastern portion of the Hill Tracts was formerly inhabited by Yun Shans, whence the name Yun-za-lin; but the majority of these were carried away by Alaungpaya to what is now the Syriam township of Pegu.

Salwín District contains no town. The head-quarters station, PA-PUN, contains less than a thousand inhabitants. The remaining villages, 208 in number, are small, and of no importance; 158, or 75·6 per cent., contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 46 between two and five hundred; and 4 between five hundred and one thousand.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4646 square miles, only 21 square miles were returned in 1883–84 as under cultivation, and 3116 as cultivable waste. The chief crops are rice and areca-nuts. In 1883–84, 437 acres were under rice (excluding the *taungyas*), 1524 acres under areca-nuts, and 34 acres under mixed fruit-trees. The cultivation is almost entirely carried on in *taungyas* or nomadic clearings in the hills, except near Pa-pun, and in the areca-nut groves, which are permanent. Area (1883–84) under *taungya* cultivation, 11,270 acres; total area under actual cultivation, 13,265 acres.

The revenue is raised almost entirely from the land and capitation taxes, and amounted in 1883–84 to £1964, of which £940 was land revenue. Area of reserved forests, 70 square miles. The education of the District is carried on by the Buddhist priests. Dispensary at the head-quarters station Pa-pun; number of patients treated (1883–84), 2814. Rainfall (1883), 127·19 inches.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Commissioner, stationed at Pa-pun, on the Yun-za-lin. Under him are an extra-Assistant Commissioner and the *thúgyí* of the six circles of Pa-pun, Kaw-lú-do, Kaw-ka-rit, Ka-daing-tí, Me-waing, and Win-pyaing. The District in 1883–84 contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts. The average distance of each village from the nearest court is 25 miles. For some years after the country became British territory, it was in a very unsettled state, but the risings were speedily quelled. In 1867, fresh and more serious disturbances broke out. A chief named Dípa attacked and plundered the villages, and threatened Pa-pun; and from that time dacoities or gang robberies became frequent. This District forms the basis of operations of those who have purchased the right to fell timber in the vast teak tracts beyond the Salwín river. These foresters come up with large sums in cash, which they require for the payment of their workmen, or for dues to the various chiefs; and in consequence, the whole of the neighbouring country beyond the borders has become the haunt of men who acknowledge no fixed authority, but collect in bodies under some daring leader, fall upon the foresters, and attack the villages of the District. In order to remedy this, the Salwín Hill Tracts were separated from Shwe-gyin in 1872, and formed into a distinct administration, and the police were considerably strengthened. The Commissioner of the District is *ex officio* Superintendent of Police, and in 1883–84 had a force under him of 19 subordinate officers and 232 men, of whom 12 were river police; of these, 156 were Karens, who work well but will not serve for long. The constabulary is quartered at Kaw-lú-do, at Kyauk-nyat, and Da-kwin on the Salwín, with a strong reserve at Pa-pun. [For further information regarding the Salwín Hill Tracts, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, 2 vols., compiled by authority (Rangoon Government Press, 1879 and 1880); the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of Burma.]

Samadhiála.—Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village with 2 separate tribute-payers or shareholders. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 957. Estimated revenue, £800; £51 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Samadhiála Chabhária.—Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 5 separate tribute-payers or shareholders. Area, 62 square miles. Population (1881) of the State, 1414; and of Samadhiála Chabhária village, 689. Estimated revenue, £650; £189, 2s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £38, 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Samadhiála Cháran. — Petty State in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with

2 separate tribute-payers or shareholders. Area, 6 square miles. Population (1881) 135. Estimated revenue, £80; no tribute is paid.

Samadhpur.—Village in Khutáhan *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 3′ 55″ N., long. 82° 31′ 3″ E. Population (1881) 2020, chiefly Muhammadans. The village was originally called Bánspurwa, owing to its site being covered with bamboos; subsequently named Samadhpur from Samadh Páik, the ancestor of the present *zamíndár*, by whom the village was peopled. Bi-weekly markets on Tuesdays and Fridays.

Sámaguting.—Frontier outpost station and former head-quarters of the Nágá Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 93° 46′ E., on a tributary of the Dhaneswari (Dhansiri) river, 2477 feet above sea-level, about 67 miles south of Golághát in Sibságar District. Sámaguting was chosen as a British station in 1867, but abandoned in favour of Kohima in 1878, as being better situated for the supervision of the Nágás; the site more healthy; the water-supply secured by an aqueduct; and the garrison strongly stockaded. The country round Sámaguting is inhabited by the Káchá tribe of Nágás. Rainfall, 63 inches.

Sámalkot.—Town in Cocanáda *táluk*, Godávarí District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHAMARLAKOTA.

Sámarkha.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 36′ N., long. 73° 2′ E. Population, including numerous hamlets (1872), 5231; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Sambalpur.—British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 2′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and between 83° 16′ and 84° 21′ E. long. Area (exclusive of the petty Native States attached to the District), 4521 square miles. Population in 1881, 693,499 souls. The seven attached Native States of KAROND or KALAHANDI, RAIGARH, SURANGARH, PATNA, SONPUR, RAIRAKHOL, and BAMRA (all of which see separately) have a total area of 11,897 square miles, and a population of 960,461 souls. Total area of British District and Feudatory States, 16,418 square miles; total population, 1,653,960 souls. Inclusive of the attached States, Sambalpur is bounded on the north by Chutiá Nágpur; on the east and south by Cuttack District, Bengal; and on the west by Biláspur and Ráipur Districts. It is the easternmost District of the Chhatísgarh Division. The administrative head-quarters are at SAMBALPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Though included in the Chhatísgarh Division, Sambalpur forms no part of Chhatísgarh proper, either geographically or historically. The *khálsa* or Government portion of the District lies along the valley of the Mahánadi, and constitutes a centre round which are clustered the feudatory States and chiefships of BAMRA, KAROND,

Patna, Raigarh, Rairakhol, Sarangarh, and Sonpur, which ar noticed in their respective alphabetical places. This tract spreads ou in an undulating plain, with ranges of rugged hills rising in ever direction. The largest of these is the Bará Pahár, a mountain chai which covers 350 square miles, and attains at Debrígarh a height o 2267 feet above the plain. The main portion of this network of hill is situated in a bend of the Mahánadi, by which river it is almost sur-rounded on three sides; but to the south-west an outlying ridge projects about 30 miles, as far as Singhora *ghát* or Pass, where the road from Ráipur to Sambalpur winds through it. From this point the hills continue in a southerly direction through Phuljhar, when they turn off abruptly to the westward. Singhora Pass has been the scene of many an action between the predatory Gonds of Phuljhar and their more civilised assailants from the Chhatísgarh country; and in 1857, our troops under Captain Wood, under Major Shakespear, and under Lieut. Rybot, had successively to fight their way through, when marching to the relief of Sambalpur. Another important range is that of Jarghátí, which crosses the Chutiá Nágpur road 20 miles north of Sambalpur town. This also afforded a stronghold to the rebels. Its highest point is 1693 feet above the plain. To the southward a succession of broken ranges run parallel with the Mahánadi for about 30 miles, the highest points being Mandhar, 1563 feet, and Bodápáli, 2331 feet. Of the isolated hills and small ranges scattered over the District, the loftiest are—Sunári, 1549 feet; Chelá, 1450 feet; and Rosorá, 1646 feet.

The only important river is the Mahanadi, which rises in Ráipur District, and, after entering Sambalpur, flows east and south-east for about 65 miles, passing Chandrapur and Padmapur, till it reaches the town of Sambalpur. It then rolls on towards the south for 45 miles, as far as Sonpur, where it bends to the east, finally falling into the sea in Orissa. As far as Chandrapur, its bed is fairly free from obstructions, but from that point to beyond Bod, boulders, *jháú* jungle, and even trees impede its current. The principal affluents in Sambalpur are the Ib, Kelú, and Jhirá.

Sambalpur District is well cultivated, especially west of the Mahánadi, where, with the exception of the Bará Pahár tract, the jungle and forest have been completely cleared, nothing being left but mango, *mahuá*, and other fruit-trees, and here and there a small patch of *sál*. Nearly every village has its tank, often large and deep, but nowhere faced with stone. The Bará Pahár Hills are covered with dense jungle; but scattered here and there, small villages, with a fringe of cultivation, nestle in the valleys. The *khálsa* or State lands, however, yield but little valuable timber. The *zamíndárís* contain tracts of *sál*, *sáj*, *dháurá*, *bije-sál*, and ebony; and in the Garhját States of Phuljhar and Ráirakhol spread vast forests of *sál*.

In Sambalpur, the soil is generally light and sandy. Crystalline metamorphic rocks occupy the greater part of the District; but part of the north-west corner is composed of the sandstone, limestone, and shale, which cover so large an area in Chhatísgarh. In the north occur outlying patches of soft sandstone. Iron-ore is found in most of the *zamíndárís* and in the Garhját or Feudatory States, the finest quality being supplied by Ráirakhol. Sambalpur has excellent sandstone for building purposes. Limestone also abounds; and the Mahánadi, near Padmapur, contains large masses of this rock of a purity resembling marble. Gold dust is yielded by the Mahánadi and the Ib; and diamonds are occasionally found at the junction of these rivers, near an island called Hírakhudá or the Diamond Isle. In neither case, however, is the supply such as to make the business of collecting remunerative.

History.—According to tradition, the first Rájá of Sambalpur was Balrám Deva, a brother of Narsingh Deva, the 12th Mahárájá of Patná, then the head of the Garhját States. (*See* PATNA STATE.) Balrám Deva obtained from his brother a grant of the jungle country lying beyond the Ung, a tributary of the Mahánadi, and gradually acquired a considerable territory by conquest from the neighbouring chiefs of Sargujá, Gángpur, Bonai, and Bámrá. His eldest son, Harí Náráyan Deva, who followed in 1493, settled the country now called Sonpur on his second son, Madan Gopál, whose descendants still hold it. During the next two centuries the power of Sambalpur steadily increased, while that of Patná continued to decline. When Ubhaya Singh succeeded in 1732, these aggressive chiefs first came in contact with the spreading power of the Maráthás. Some guns of large calibre were passing from Cuttack up the Mahánadi, in order to be transported to Nágpur. Akbar Ráya, the minister, caused the boatmen to scuttle the boats in deep water, and many Maráthá artillerymen were drowned. Akbar Ráya subsequently recovered the guns, and had them mounted on the Sambalpur fort. The Rájá of Nágpur sent a strong detachment to avenge the insult and regain the guns, but it was repulsed with slaughter.

About 1797, in the reign of Jeth Singh, successor to Ubhaya Singh, another quarrel with the Maráthás arose. Náná Sáhib, a relation of the Nágpur Rájá, with a large party, was making a pilgrimage to Jagannáth, when he was treacherously attacked by the people of Sárangarh and Sambalpur, as well as of Sonpur and Bod. He pushed on, however, to Cuttack, where he found some Maráthá troops. Returning with these, after some severe fighting, he took prisoner the Bod chief and Príthwí Singh, the chief of Sonpur. As soon as the rains were over, he appeared before Sambalpur, and regularly invested the town. Jeth Singh, however, had meantime strengthened the fort, and it was only after a five months' siege that the Náná succeeded

in crossing the moat and forcing the Samlái gate. After a fierce contest, the Maráthás captured the fort, and carried off Jeth Singh and his son Maháráj Sá as prisoners to Nágpur. Bhúp Singh, a Maráthá *jamádár*, was left to administer Sambalpur on behalf of the Nágpur Government. Soon, however, he assumed an independent position; and when a large force was sent from Nágpur to compel his obedience, he called in the aid of the Ráigarh and Sárangarh people, and routed the Maráthás at the Singhora Pass. A second force was sent from Nágpur, and assisted by Chamrá Gáonthiyá, whose enmity Bhúp Singh had provoked by plundering his village, seized the pass, and almost annihilated Bhúp Singh's army. The conquered chief fled to Sambalpur, and, taking with him the Ránís of Jeth Singh, made his way to Kolábirá. While there, he implored the help of the British on behalf of the Ránís; and Captain Roughsedge, with a portion of the Rámgarh local battalion, was sent to Sambalpur in 1804. Raghují Bhonsla, the Rájá of Nágpur, however, remonstrated with the British Government for thus interfering with a country he had fairly conquered, and the British restored Sambalpur to him.

For some years, the District continued under Maráthá rule, while Jeth Singh and his son remained in confinement at Chándá; but Major Roughsedge pleaded their cause so energetically, that in 1817 Jeth Singh was restored to power. He died in the following year. After some months, during which the British Government held the country, Maháráj Sá, his son, was made Rájá, though without the feudal superiority of his predecessors over the other chiefships; while Major Roughsedge was established at Sambalpur as Assistant Agent. Maháráj Sá died in 1827, and his widow, Rání Mohan Kumári, succeeded. Disturbances immediately broke out, the most prominent of the rebels being Surendra Sá and Govind Singh, both Chauháns and pretenders to the chiefship. Villages were plundered to within a few miles of Sambalpur; and though Lieutenant Higgins drove off the rebels, it became necessary for the Agent, Captain Wilkinson, to proceed from Hazáribágh to Sambalpur. After hanging some of the insurgents, Captain Wilkinson deposed the Rání, and set up in her place Náráyan Singh, a descendant by a woman of inferior caste from Baliár Singh, third Rájá of Sambalpur. Náráyan Singh accepted his elevation very unwillingly, foreseeing the difficulties which followed immediately on the withdrawal of the British troops. Balabhadra Sá, the Gond chief of Lakhanpur, was the first to rise, but at length he was killed at his refuge in the Bará Pahár hills.

In 1839, Major Ouseley became Assistant Agent at Sambalpur; and in the same year great disturbances occurred, caused chiefly by Surendra Sá, who claimed the throne as being descended from Madhukar Sá, fourth Rájá of Sambalpur. In 1840, he and two of his relations murdered

the son and father of Daryáo Singh, chief of Rámpur, and were sent as life prisoners to the jail of Chutiá Nágpur. In 1849, Náráyan Singh died without male issue, and Sambalpur lapsed to the British Government. The first acts of the new rulers were to raise the revenue assessments by one-fourth; and to resume the land grants, religious or otherwise. The Bráhmans, a powerful community in Sambalpur, went up in a body to Ránchí to appeal, but gained no redress. In 1854, a second land settlement again raised the assessments everywhere by one-fourth. Such a system of exaction and confiscation produced its natural results. When the Mutiny broke out three years later, the sepoys released Surendra Sá and his brother from jail, who immediately proceeded to Sambalpur. Nearly all the chiefs at once joined them, though Govind Singh, the rival pretender of 1827, held aloof.

Surendra Sá established himself with a large force in the ruins of the old fort, but was induced to give himself up to Captain Leigh. Soon afterwards, however, he escaped, and joined the rebels in the hills. From that time to 1862, the British troops in vain endeavoured to hunt him down. The most daring atrocities were committed by his band: villages friendly to the Government were plundered and burnt; Dr. Moore, a European officer, was murdered; and Lieutenant Woodbridge was killed in a fight on the Bará Pahár, and his head carried off. The proclamation of amnesty failed to win the submission of the rebels. In 1861, Major Impey was placed in charge at Sambalpur, and adopted a conciliatory policy. By lavish rewards to the chiefs who gave themselves up, he succeeded in dispersing the rebel band, and procuring the surrender in May 1862 of Surendra Sá himself. The next year, however, the disturbances recommenced. Sambalpur had recently been incorporated with the Central Provinces, and the opportunity was seized of the first visit of Mr. Temple, the Chief Commissioner, to present a petition praying for the restoration of native rule in the person of Surendra Sá. This was followed by the rising of Kamal Singh, one of Surendra Sá's captains during the rebellion, and by the recurrence of aggravated outrages. At length, on 23rd January 1864, Surendra Sá was finally arrested. No legal proof of his complicity with the rebels was forthcoming; but he was placed in confinement with some of his relations and adherents as a dangerous political offender, and since then profound peace has reigned throughout the District.

Population.—The Native States attached to Sambalpur District are elsewhere noticed in their respective places. (*See* KAROND, SONPUR, RAIRAKHOL, RAIGARH, BAMRA, PATNA, and SARANGARH.) The following statistics will therefore be confined to the *khálsa* country—the British District. A rough enumeration of the population was taken in 1866, but its results cannot be relied on in this District. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 523,034 persons. The

last enumeration in 1881 returned a total population of 693,499, showing an apparent increase of 170,465 persons, or 32·6 per cent., in nine years. The increase of registered births over deaths accounts for 13·1 per cent. of the increase, the balance being attributed almost entirely to defective enumeration in 1872, especially in the *zamíndárí* tracts.

The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 4521 square miles, with 1 town and 3256 villages; number of houses, 168,381, namely, occupied 160,359, and unoccupied 8022. Total population, 693,499, namely, males 346,549, and females 346,950. Average density of population, 153 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 0·72; persons per town or village, 213; houses per square mile, 35·5; persons per house, 4·3. Classified according to sex and age, there are—under 15 years, boys 157,661, and girls 150,836; total children, 308,497, or 44·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 188,888, and females 196,114; total adults, 385,002, or 55·5 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population of Sambalpur District consists of—Hindus, 632,747, or 91·2 per cent.; Kabírpanthís, 10,120; Satnámís, 212; Kumbhípáthias (only found in Sambalpur District), 692; Muhammadans, 2966; Christians, 110; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 46,652. The total aboriginal population by race as apart from religion, however, is returned at 231,520, namely, Gonds, 57,327; Savars or Sauras, 65,845; Baigás, 40,696; Kurás, 18,643; Kandhs, 16,672; Kols, 40,696; Kawárs, 2303; and Bhíls, 421.

Among the recognised Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 21,828; Rájputs, 5644; and Káyasths, 2159. The lower-class Hindus, who comprise the great mass of the population, include the following castes:—Gaur, 79,079; Gándá, 78,622; Koltá or Kolitá, 67,102; Keut or Kewát, 27,453; Telí, 22,250; Málí, 10,824; Chamár, 9523; Dumál, 9006; Dhobí, 7387; Panká, 6637; Ghasiá, 6543; Lohár, 6557; Kumbhár, 6148; Kallár, 6061; Nái, 4828; Banjárá, 4370; Korí, 3486; Marár, 2596; Kurmí, 2156; Koshtí, 1941; Sonár, 1895; and Mahár, 1286.

Town and Rural Population.—The population is entirely rural, and Sambalpur town (population in 1881, 6658) is the only place which contains upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Of the 3256 villages, no less than 2064 are mere hamlets with less than two hundred inhabitants; 923 contain between two hundred and five hundred; 244 between five hundred and a thousand; 21 between one thousand and two thousand; 3 between two thousand and three thousand; and 1 between three thousand and five thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male popula-

tion into the following six classes:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 5206; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, 2597; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3917; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 166,420; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 31,845; and (6) indefinite, non-productive, and unspecified class, comprising general labourers and male children, 3299.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4521 square miles in the British District, only 1125 square miles were cultivated in 1883-84; and of the portion lying waste, 888 square miles were returned as cultivable, while 2508 square miles are uncultivable. Of the total area, however, 161 miles are held revenue-free, leaving 4360 square miles assessed for Government revenue, of which 1018 square miles were cultivated, 880 square miles available for cultivation, and 2462 square miles uncultivable waste. Even of this area, 2891 square miles are comprised within 20 estates or *zamíndárí* chiefships, paying a quit-rent or tribute of only £1401, or an average of one penny per cultivated acre. The Government land revenue proper is derived from 1469 square miles, of which 498 square miles are cultivated, 37 square miles available for cultivation, and 934 square miles uncultivable waste. Total Government land revenue with local cesses, excluding the *zamíndárís*, £10,196, or an average of 7¾d. per cultivated acre. Irrigation in 1883-84 was practised on 79,515 acres, entirely by private enterprise.

Rice forms the staple crop, and in 1883 occupied 579,991 acres. No wheat is grown, but 'other food-grains' were produced on 61,748 acres; while 31,563 acres were devoted to oil-seeds, 33,484 acres to cotton, and 9449 acres to sugar-cane. The agricultural stock in 1883-84 was thus returned—cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 222,053; horses, 684; ponies, 963; sheep and goats, 39,202; pigs, 1063; while carts numbered 12,138, and ploughs 51,177.

Of the adult male and female agricultural population in 1881, namely, 252,419, landed proprietors were returned as numbering 4411; tenant cultivators, 147,745; assistants in home cultivation, 262; agricultural labourers, 33,651; the remainder being made up of graziers, tenants of unspecified status, estate agents, etc. Area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 5 acres. The ordinary price of rice in 1883-84 was 3s. per cwt. Skilled labourers earn from 6d. to 8d. per day, and unskilled labourers 2½d. to 3d. per day.

Trade and Commerce.—The manufactures of Sambalpur are few and unimportant. The Koshtís, however, weave *tasar* silk cloth of an even texture and unfading lustre; and the Kánwárs manufacture vessels of brass and bell metal. Nearly every village also contains weavers of

coarse cotton cloth, and the Sonárs make rude ornaments of gold and silver. The principal exports from the District are rice, oil-seeds, raw sugar, stick-lac, *tasar* silk, cotton, and iron. Principal imports—salt, refined sugar, European piece-goods, cocoa-nuts, muslins, fine cloths of native make, and metals. The chief trade is with Cuttack and Mírzápur. In the Orissa famine of 1866-67, no less than 30,178 *maunds* (about 1100 tons) of rice, valued at £10,171, were exported to Cuttack. None of the roads in Sambalpur are bridged or metalled. The chief lines of communication are the roads from Sambalpur town to Ráipur *viâ* Sánkra on the Jonk river; and to Cuttack *viâ* Rairákhol and Angúl. Tracts also lead from Sambalpur to the Biláspur frontier, by Padmapur and Chandrapur, to Bínka, and towards Ránchí. The Mahánadi affords means of communication by water for 90 miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Sambalpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1883-84, £22,445, of which the land yielded £11,387. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £9537; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 8; magistrates, 9. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 66 miles; average distance, 25 miles. Number of regular and town police, 365, costing £4721; being 1 policeman to about every 12·4 miles and every 1900 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1883 was 127, of whom 11 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection in 1883-84 was 136, attended by 7817 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned only 3434 boys and 171 girls as under instruction, besides 10,114 males and 298 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The average temperature in the shade at the civil station during 1883 is returned as follows:—May, highest reading 116·2° F., lowest 75·3° F.; July, highest 101·3° F., lowest 72·3° F.; December, highest 79·7° F., lowest 46·8° F. The rainfall for that year amounted to 78·51 inches, the average being 57·5 inches. The climate of Sambalpur is considered very unhealthy. The prevailing disease is fever, especially from September to November. It proves most fatal to new-comers, natives as well as Europeans. Bowel complaints are also common and deadly, and cholera appears nearly every hot season, owing to the gatherings at the temple of Jagannáth at Purí. In 1883, two charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 21,035 in-door and out-door patients. The death-rate per thousand in 1883-84 was returned at 26·19, the mean of the previous five years being 26·07, but these figures cannot be trusted. [For further information regarding Sambalpur, see the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Mr. (now Sir

Charles) Grant (Nágpur, 1870). Also the *Report of the Land Settlement of Sambalpur District*, between 1872 and 1877, by Mr. A. M. Russell, published 1883; the *Central Provinces Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government.]

Sambalpur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1500 square miles, with 1 town and 1499 villages, and 69,418 houses. Population (1881) 297,361, namely, males 147,973, and females 149,388; average density of the population, 169·1 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 893 square miles are comprised within nine *zamíndárí* estates or chiefships, which pay only a nominal tribute or quit-rent; while 135 square miles are held entirely revenue-free. The Government revenue-paying lands occupy an area of 730 square miles, of which 241 square miles are cultivated, 14 square miles are cultivable, and 475 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total adult agricultural population, 67,462, or 40·17 per cent. of the whole population in the *khálsa* or Government tract. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 3 acres. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £3960, or an average of 5d. per cultivated acre. Sambalpur *tahsíl* contained in 1883, 5 civil and 7 criminal courts (including the District head-quarters courts); with 4 police stations (*thánás*) and 11 outpost stations, a regular police force numbering 97 men, and a village watch or rural police of 715 *chaukídárs.*

Sambalpur.—Principal town and administrative head-quarters of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. The town is situated in lat. 21° 27′ 10″ N., and long. 84° 1′ E., on the north bank of the Mahánadi, which, during the rainy season, becomes nearly a mile broad, but at other times flows in a small stream 50 yards in width. Opposite the town and station, the river bed is a mass of rocks covered with thick *jháú* jungle; on each side the banks are richly wooded with mango and other groves, while to the south rises a stately background of lofty hills. Population (1872) 11,020; (1881) 13,939, namely, males 6658, and females 7281. Hindus number 10,619; Muhammadans, 1298; Kumbhiápathiás, 79; Kabírpanthís and Satnámís, 6; Christians, 104; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 1833. Municipal income in 1882–83, £1808, of which £1531 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 3⅜d.

The town proper has been much improved since 1864, when a cart could only with great difficulty pass through the main street. To the north-west lie the ruins of the fort—a crumbling stone wall on the river face, and a few mouldering bastions. The moat can still be traced; but no gateway remains except that of Samlái, near the temple of the goddess of that name, who was apparently the tutelary divinity of

Sambalpur. Within the fort stand several other temples, the principal of which are those of Padmeswari Devi, Bará Jagannáth, and Anant Sajjá, all built during the 16th century. They are of uniform design, and remarkable neither for elegance nor solidity. Beyond the fort extends the Bará Bázár, originally a mere market-place, but now a populous suburb. Besides the Government court-house and the Sub-divisional office on the river bank, the principal buildings are the Commissioner's circuit-house, post-office, a jail lately built on the standard plan, and 2 *saráis*, as well as a handsome terrace-roofed market-place. A native gentleman has lately built a dispensary with female wards, and a District schoolhouse. Till recently, cholera visited the town almost every year, owing chiefly to the influx of pilgrims returning from Purí. Of late, however, sanitary precautions have done much to prevent the epidemic, and the increase of vaccination is gradually restraining the ravages of small-pox.

Sambhal.—*Tahsíl* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the plain country between the Sot and the Ganges, conterminous with Sambhal *parganá*. It is about 32 miles long by 15 miles broad, and consists of two great natural divisions, the *katehr* or 'hard,' and the *bhúr* or sandy tracts. Their border-line runs north-east and south-west, down the centre of the *tahsíl*, parallel to the course of the Sot. The low lands of that river form a belt of from two to three miles wide, right through the *katehr* tract. The soil of the *katehr* is described as of a dark colour, assimilating in appearance to *matiyár*; and some villages in which it predominates are among the finest in the District. The *bhúr* or sandy tract consists of ridges of loose, soft sand, alternating with extensive flats of more cohesive soil, in which there is a very slight admixture of loam. All over the *bhúr* tract are large unploughed wastes, utilized in dry seasons as grazing grounds. Several important but unmetalled roads meet at Sambhal town.

The total area of Sambhal *tahsíl* in 1881–82 was 468·74 square miles, of which 443·13 square miles were assessed for Government revenue, namely, 360·34 square miles cultivated, 55·69 square miles cultivable, and 27·10 square miles uncultivable. Population (1881) 248,107, namely, males 130,441, and females 117,666; average density of population, 530 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 173,850; Muhammadans, 73,808; Christians, 273; and Jains, 180. Of the 465 towns and villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 323 had less than five hundred inhabitants; 111 between five hundred and a thousand; 28 between two and three thousand; and 3 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Total Government land revenue (1881–82), £35,291, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £39,832. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £81,181. Sambhal *tahsíl* contained in 1885, 1 civil and 2 criminal courts;

number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 79 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 424.

Sambhal. — Town and municipality in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Sambhal *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 28° 35′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 36′ 45″ E., on the Alígarh road, 23 miles south-west of Moradábád town, and 4 miles west of the Sot river, in the midst of a cultivated and well-wooded plain. The modern town covers the summit of an extensive mound, composed of remains and *débris* of the ancient city. Two heaps of ruins, known as Bhaleswar and Bikteswar, mark the old bastions of the city wall. The town formed the head-quarters of the local Government from the earliest period of Muhammadan supremacy, and was the capital of a *sarkár* under Akbar. Population (1881) 21,373, namely, males 10,659, and females 10,714; number of houses, 4710. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 13,965; Hindus, 7333; Jains, 38; and Christians, 37. Municipal income (1883-84), £1588, of which £1471 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 10d. per head of the population (35,196) within municipal limits.

Sambhal is a prettily situated town, with the houses mostly built of brick. Only in the town and suburbs are there any metalled roads; but unmetalled ones connect it with Moradábád, Bilárí, Amrohá, Chandausí, Bahjoi, and Hasanpur. The public buildings include the *tahsílí* or sub-collectorate offices, *munsifí* or subordinate judges' court, police station, post-office, dispensary, American mission church and schools, several municipal schools, distillery, and a *sarái* or native inn. Refined sugar is the chief manufacture, and also the principal article of trade. Wheat and other grains and *ghí* are also exported, and there is some export of hides. Cotton cloth is manufactured, but chiefly for local wants.

Sámbhar.—Great salt lake in the States of Jaipur (Jeypore) and Jodhpur, Rájputána. The lake lies between 26° 52′ and 27° 2′ N. lat., and between 74° 57′ and 75° 16′ E. long., on the joint border of the States, 40 miles north-west of Ajmere, and within the line of hills which mark the general north-westward run of the Aravalli range as it begins to lose continuity and to subside. The land all round slopes towards the lake, which thus forms a great basin with no outlet, containing a shallow sheet of water. The surrounding country is arid and sterile, being composed of rocks abounding in limestone and salt, and belonging to the Permian system; and it is supposed that the salt of the lake is derived from the washings of these rocks. The bottom consists of a tenacious black mud, resting on loose sand. When full, the lake forms a sheet of water measuring about 20 miles in length, from 3 to 10 miles in breadth, and from 1 to 4 feet in depth.

After the rains, in August and September, the waters of the lake begin to evaporate, and this process goes on almost uninterruptedly from October to June. In very hot and dry summers, the wet bed is little more than a mile in length and less than half a mile across. The lake's longest stretch is nearly east and west; and the deeper portion, which never dries up, and which is locally called 'the treasury,' is situated near the centre of the lake, almost opposite a bold rocky promontory (Máta-ki-devi) which juts out from the southern shore.

In the dry season, the view of the lake is very striking. Standing on the low sandy ridges which confine the basin on the south, one may see what looks like a great sheet of snow, with pools of water here and there, and a network of narrow paths marking the near side of it. What appears to be frozen snow is a white crisp efflorescence of salt. The salt is both held in solution in the water of the lake, and also pervades in minute crystals the whole substance of black mud that forms so large a part of its bed.

This valuable property has often been fiercely contested. The lake was worked by the Imperial administration of Akbar and his successors up to the time of Ahmad Sháh, when it fell back into the hands of the Rájput Chiefs of Jaipur and Jodhpur. The eastern shore, and part of the southern shore, are now the joint possession of Jaipur and Jodhpur; the rest belongs to Jaipur. During the ten years 1835 to 1844, the Government of India, in order to repay itself a portion of the expenses incurred in repelling the predatory incursions of the Rájputs into British territory, took the salt-making into its own hands; but with this exception, the lake has been owned and worked jointly by the Jaipur and Jodhpur Governments from the 17th century to 1870, when the British Government became lessees under separate treaties concluded with the two chiefs.

As soon as the salt is formed, native labourers of both sexes wade out to it through the mud, and placing their hands under the salt crust, lift it off in good-sized cakes into baskets. A man brings to shore in this way about half a ton of salt a day. The salt is also made in shallow pans, into which the brine is baled; and in walled enclosures, the beds of which are sunk below the level of the lake. Nearly the whole of the salt extracted is white or slightly discoloured. Some portions are blue and red, the varieties being said to be due to the presence of microscopic algæ. The Sámbhar lake supplies nearly all the chief salt marts of the Punjab, the North-Western Provinces, and Central India. The town of Sámbhar within the joint jurisdiction of Jaipur and Jodhpur States, and Nawa and Gudha in Jodhpur State on the opposite side of the lake, have recently been connected by a branch line with the Rájputána-Málwá Railway. According to travellers in the early part of this century, the dimensions of the lake were larger

than they are at present, and reached as much as 50 miles in length by 10 in breadth during periods of heavy rain.

The average yearly out-turn for the 15 years ending 1883-84, since the Government of India leased the lake, has been 2,800,000 *maunds* (about 100,000 tons). The average cost of storage and extraction, about 6 *pies* (three farthings) a *maund* (82$\frac{2}{7}$ lbs.). From the beginning of the lease to 1883-84, the quantity of salt manufactured was 42,039,480 *maunds* (about 1,500,000 tons); the total sales amounted to 31,998,365 *maunds*, yielding a revenue of £1,393,739; total charges, including treaty payments, £1,210,983; net credit balance, £182,756. In 1883-84, the total quantity of salt manufactured at Sambhar lake was 7,111,353 *maunds*. Gross realizations, including duty, £880,606; the direct charges amounted to £58,395, and payments made under treaties, £75,495; total, £133,890, leaving a surplus of £746,716. The labour employed in 1883-84 was — labourers, 421,925; carts, 38,757; cattle, 33,987.

Sámbhar.—Town within the joint jurisdiction of Jaipur and Jodhpur States, on the bank of the Sámbhar lake, Rájputána; situated 39 miles south-west of Jaipur city. Population (1881) 5574. Hindus number 4831, and Muhammadans 743. A station on the Sámbhar branch of the Rájputána-Málwá Railway. Dispensary and post-office.

Sambhuganj.—Village in Maimansingh District, Bengal; 3 miles east of Nasírábád. Population (1881) 938. One of the busiest marts in the District for country produce of all kinds; large exports of jute. In 1876-77, the registered exports from Sambhuganj included 72,000 *maunds* of jute (mostly sent direct to Calcutta), 31,000 *maunds* of rice, and 9500 *maunds* of mustard seed. No later trade statistics are available.

Sameswari (*Someswari, or Samsáng*).—River in the Gáro Hills, Assam. Rising near the station of Turá, it flows first in an easterly direction along the north of the Turá range, and then turns south through a picturesque gorge and finds its way into the plains in the Bengal District of Maimansingh. It finally empties itself into the Kanks river in *parganá* Susáng. Both in size and utility, the Sameswari is the most important river in the Gáro Hills. It is navigable up-stream as high as Siju, about 20 miles within the hills. Here its channel is interrupted by a bed of granite rocks and rapids. In several other portions of its course it again becomes navigable for canoes. Valuable outcrops of coal have been discovered and surveyed in the Sameswari valley, but none has yet been worked. Limestone of good quality abounds on the river banks, and there are some curious caverns in the limestone formation. The largest of these caves lies near Siju, and has been explored for a whole day without reaching the source of a small stream which issues from the cave. Above Siju, the Sameswari flows through

a tract of sandstone, in which extensive coal-beds have been discovered on both sides of the river; but up to 1884 they had not been worked otherwise than experimentally. In its upper course are several magnificent gorges, with rocky cliffs, clothed in tropical vegetation. The water swarms with fish, including the excellent *máhsir;* and the Gáros are enthusiastic fishermen.

Sami.—Town in Rádhanpur State, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SHAMI.

Samla.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 2 villages, with 4 separate tribute-payers or shareholders. Area, 13 square miles. Population (1881) of the State, 1330; and of Samla village, 757. Estimated revenue, £762; of which £96 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £10, 8s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sámnagar.—Town in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal.—*See* SYAMNAGAR.

Samod.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána. A large and flourishing town, the principal place of Samod *zamíndárí.* It is defended by a fort of some strength on the summit of a hill, at the base of which the town stands. Samod *zamíndárí* is held by one of the principal *thákurs* of Jaipur State, and yields an annual revenue of £11,000.

Sampaji Ghát.—One of the passes connecting South Kánara District, Madras Presidency, with Coorg. Good road; practicable for wheeled carriages.

Sámpgáon.—Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 425 square miles; villages, 123. Population (1872) 131,504; (1881) 119,843, namely, males 59,565, and females 60,278. Hindus number 106,552; Muhammadans, 10,027; and 'others,' 3264. Sámpgáon has great variety of soil and surface. From the hilly west, the country gradually sinks eastwards into a great black cotton plain. In the south-west, ranges of quartz and ironstone, about 150 feet high, and a quarter to half a mile apart, run nearly north and south. The Malprabha river crosses the middle of the Sub-division from west to east. Of a total area of 424 square miles, 22 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 217,179 acres of cultivable land, of which 52,998 acres are alienated lands in Government villages; 4223 acres, uncultivable land; 1277 acres, grass; 16,627 acres, forests; and 12,927 acres, village sites, roads, etc. In 1881–82, out of 158,320 acres held for tillage, 18,598 acres were under grass. Of the remaining 139,722 acres, 17,726 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 115,281 acres; pulses, 18,637 acres; oil-seeds, 3504 acres; fibres, 16,452 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 3574 acres. In 1883–84 the Sub-division contained—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 49 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 489. Land revenue, £23,913.

Sámpgáon.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Sámpgáon *táluk;* situated about 18 miles south-east of Belgáum town, in lat. 15° 36′ N., long. 74° 50′ E. Population (1881) 3629. Besieged and captured in 1683 by Akbar's son, Prince Muhammad Muazzam. Towards the end of the seventeenth century, the founder of the Kittur Desái family settled at Sámpgáon, which lapsed to Government after the Kittur outbreak in 1824. Sámpgáon has a few looms; weekly market on Sundays, when cattle, cloth, cotton, and grain are sold. Post-office; library; two schools, one for girls; and an old mosque.

Sámpla.—East central *tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab. Area, 417 square miles; towns and villages, 123; houses, 19,855; families, 30,516. Total population (1881) 142,177, namely, males 76,004, and females 66,173. Average density of population, 341 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 129,508; Muhammadans, 12,394; Jains, 263; Sikhs, 11; and 'others,' 1. Of the 123 towns and villages, 33 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 37 between five hundred and a thousand; 52 between one and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand inhabitants. The average area under tillage for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 306 square miles, or 195,909 acres, the area under the principal crops being as follows:—*joár,* 47,134 acres; *bájra,* 41,043 acres; gram, 32,265 acres; wheat, 25,036 acres; barley, 17,076 acres; other food-grains, 1352 acres; cotton, 14,279 acres; sugar-cane, 6078 acres; the remainder consisting of a little vegetables, indigo, and tobacco. Revenue of the *tahsíl,* £25,898. The local administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and an honorary magistrate, presiding over 1 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police circles, 3; strength of regular police, 69 men; village watch or rural police, 217.

Sámpla.—Village in Rohtak District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Sámpla *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 28° 47′ N., and long. 76° 49′ E., on the Rohtak and Delhi road, half-way between Rohtak town and Bahádurgarh. *Tahsíli,* police station, post-office, village school, and *sarái.*

Samra (*Semra*).—Town in Ihtimadpur *tahsíl,* Agra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 19′ 26″ N., long. 78° 7′ 10″ E., 14 miles north-west from Ihtimadpur town. Population (1881) 4797. Bi-weekly market, and village school.

Samrála.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Ludhiána District, Punjab. Area, 288 square miles. Population (1881) 152,509, namely, males 84,838, and females 67,671; average density of population, 530 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there are—Hindus, 89,154; Muhammadans, 46,223; Sikhs, 16,893; and 'others,' 239. Revenue of the *tahsíl,* £27,527. The local administrative staff consists of a

tahsíldár and a *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 58 men; village watch or rural police, (*chaukídárs*), 244. Samrála, the head-quarters of the *tahsíl*, is a small village, and was only chosen as such on account of its central position.

Samsa Parvat.—Peak of the Western Gháts bordering on South Kánara District, Madras Presidency, 6300 feet high. Lat. 13° 8′ N., long. 75° 18′ E. The hill is used as a sanitarium by the European residents of South Kánara; there are two bungalows, but no village; easy access by road (56 miles) from Mangalore. The climate, except from June to September, during the south-west monsoon, is delightful; and for sportsmen there is abundance of game. Wood, water, and grass are also plentiful. There is no plateau, properly speaking, but undulating ground along the line of the mountain for some miles. English fruits, flowers, and vegetables grow well, and in most respects the climate and soil resemble those of COONOOR (Kunur).

Sámthar (*Sampthar*, *Sumpter*).—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency, Central India; lying between 25° 42′ and 25° 57′ N. lat., and between 78° 51′ and 79° 11′ E. long. Area, 174 square miles. Population (1881) 38,633, namely, males 20,403, and females 18,230; occupying 7131 houses, in 1 town and 87 villages. Hindus number 36,195; Muhammadans, 2284; Jains, 56; Christians, 5; and aboriginal tribes (Moghias), 93. Estimated revenue, £40,000. Sámthar is bounded on the north and west by Gwalior; on the south-west, south, and south-east by the British District of Jhánsi; and on the east by Jaláun District. The State of Sámthar was separated from Datiya only one generation previous to the British occupation of Bundelkhand. When the British first entered the Province, Rájá Ranjít Singh requested to be taken into the friendship and under the protection of the British Government; but nothing definite was done till 1817, when a treaty was concluded with him. The chief is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. He has received the right of adoption. The military forces of the State are 300 cavalry and 2000 infantry, with 35 guns and 150 gunners.

Sámthar.—Chief town of Sámthar State, Bundelkhand, Central India. Lat. 25° 51′ N., long. 78° 55′ E. Population (1881) 7891, namely, Hindus, 6905; Muhammadans, 980; and 'others,' 6.

Sámulkota (*Chámarlákota*).—Town in Cocanáda *táluk*, Godávarí District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHAMARLAKOTA.

Sanála.—Petty State in the Gohelwar division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate tribute-payers or shareholders. Area, 51 square miles. Population (1881) 500. Estimated revenue, £270; £30, 14s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 30s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sánand.—Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 360 square miles. Population (1872) 73,229; (1881) 76,964, namely, males 39,249, and females 37,715; occupying 20,194 houses, in 1 town and 84 villages. Hindus number 68,811; Muhammadans, 4690; and 'others,' 3463. Except an undulating strip of land on the west, Sánand is in the centre a rich plain of light soil with well-wooded fields; and in the south and west a barer stretch of black soil. The people live in prosperous villages, with several fine ponds. Water-supply generally good. Of a total area of 360 square miles, 162 square miles belong to alienated and *tálukdárí* villages. The remainder contains 126,547 acres of occupied land, of which 38,696 acres are alienated land in Government villages; 69,525 acres cultivable waste; 39,703 acres uncultivable waste; and 17,319 acres village sites, roads, etc. In 1860–61, the year of settlement, 5674 holdings were recorded, with an average area of 12¼ acres, paying an average Government assessment of £1, 9s. 0½d. In 1877–78, 74,517 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 657 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 62,144 acres; pulses, 2771 acres; oil-seeds, 1264 acres; fibres, 8163 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 832 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained—criminal courts, 2; police circle (*tháná*), 1; regular police, 54 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 292. Land revenue, £17,628.

Sánand.—Chief town of the Sánand Sub-division of Ahmadábád District, Bombay; situated 16 miles west of Ahmadábád city, in lat. 22° 59′ N., and long. 72° 25′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 6984. Hindus numbered 5463; Muhammadans, 299; Jains, 1212; Christian, 1; and 'others,' 9. Sánand is a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, 18 miles from Ahmadábád. Post-office, dispensary, and *dharmsálá*.

Sanavárapeta.—Town in Ellore *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3200. Hindus numbered 2773, and Muhammadans 427. Number of houses, 597.

Sanáwan.—Northern *tahsíl* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; consisting of a high central upland, almost barren, known as the *thal*, together with two strips of lowland along the banks of the Indus and the Chenáb. Area, 1327 square miles; number of towns and villages, 127; houses, 15,413; families, 17,177. Population (1881) 80,851, namely, males 43,656, and females 37,195. Average density of population, 61 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 71,584; Hindus, 9555; and Sikhs, 712. Of the 127 towns and villages, 76 contain less than five hundred; 29 between five hundred and a thousand; and 22 between one and five thousand inhabitants. The average area under tillage for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 158½ square miles, or 101,438 acres,

the area under the principal crops being—wheat, 51,796 acres; *joár*, 6960 acres; *bájra*, 6504 acres; gram, 2795 acres; *moth*, 2052 acres; barley, 1829 acres; rice, 633 acres; cotton, 8334 acres; indigo, 3981 acres; tobacco, 259 acres; sugar-cane, 105 acres; and vegetables, 382 acres Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £14,099. The local administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and an honorary magistrate, presiding over 1 civil and 2 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 51 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 105.

Sanáwar.—Plot of land in Simla District, Punjab. Made over by the British Government in 1852 as the site of the Lawrence Military Asylum. The buildings stand in lat. 30° 54′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 2′ 10″ E., on a wooded hill facing Kasauli, which is 3 miles distant. They consist of boys and girls' schools, and the residences of the Principal, with a staff of teachers, and a church. The institution, which is undenominational, accommodates from 400 to 500 children. In September 1883, there were 424 boys and girls on the rolls, including 64 in the orphanage.

Sánchi.—Village in the Native State of BHOPAL, Central India; situated on the left bank of the Betwa river, about 5½ miles south-west of Bhílsa, and 20 miles north-east of Bhopál city. Sánchi is famous as the site of some of the most extensive and remarkable Buddhist remains in India, the centre of the great group described by General Cunningham under the name of '*The Bhílsa Topes.*'

The present village of Sánchi is situated on a low ridge of sand-stone, the general direction of which is from north to south, the whole summit of the hill being covered with ruins. The hill is flat-topped and isolated, with a steep cliff to the eastward, and to the westward an easy slope, covered with jungle at the foot, and near the top broken into steps by horizontal ledges of rock.

The principal buildings which now remain occupy only the middle part of the level summit, and a narrow belt leading down the hill to the westward. They consist of one great *stupa* or tope, with its railing and other adjuncts; about ten smaller *stupas*, some now showing nothing more than the foundations; a stone bowl, 4½ feet in diameter and 2½ feet deep, supposed to have once contained Buddha's holy nettle, and other objects of antiquarian interest. The summit of the hill, on which these remains are found, has a gentle slope in the same direction as the dip of the strata; and the level of the court of the great *stupa* is about 12 or 15 feet below that of a ruined *vihára* and temple on the eastern edge of the precipice. The hill, which is about 300 feet in height, is formed of a light red sandstone, hard and compact in texture, but subject to split. This stone has been used for all the topes and other buildings where mere hardness and durability

were required; but for the colonnades and sculptured gateways, a fine-grained white sandstone was brought from the Udayagiri Hill, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the northward. The village is now very small; but the numerous ruins scattered over the hill between Sánchi and Kánakhera show that there once was a large town on this site. Plaster casts of the gateways, etc., of the topes have been sent to England.

Fergusson (*History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, 1876, page 61) thus writes of this group of remains:—

'The principal of these, known as the Great Tope at Sánchi, has been frequently described, the smaller ones are known from General Cunningham's descriptions only; but altogether they have excited so much attention that they are perhaps better known than any group in India. We are not, however, perhaps justified in assuming, from the greater extent of this group as now existing, that it possessed the same pre-eminence in Buddhist times. If we could now see the topes that once adorned any of the great Buddhist sites in the Doáb or Behar, the Bhílsa group might sink into insignificance. It may only be that, situated in a remote and thinly peopled part of India, they have not been exposed to the destructive energy of opposing sects of the Hindu religion, and the bigoted Moslem has not wanted their materials for the erection of his mosques. They consequently remain to us, while it may be that nobler and more extensive groups of monuments have been swept from the face of the earth.

'Notwithstanding all that has been written about them, we know very little that is certain regarding their object and their history. Our usual guides, the Chinese Pilgrims, fail us here. Fa-Hian never was within some hundreds of miles of the place; and if Hiuen Tsiang ever was there, it was after leaving Ballabhi (Valabhí), when his journal becomes so wild and curt that it is difficult, sometimes impossible, to follow him. He has, at all events, left no description by which we can now identify the place, and nothing to tell us for what purpose the Great Tope or any of the smaller ones were erected. The *Maháwanso*, it is true, helps us a little in our difficulties. It is there narrated that Asoka when on his way to Ujjain, of which place he had been nominated governor, tarried some time at Chétyagiri, or, as it is elsewhere called, Wessanagara, the modern Bísnagar, close to Sánchi. He there married Devi, the daughter of the chief, and by her had twin sons, Ujjenio and Mahindo, and afterwards a daughter, Sanghamitta. The two last-named entered the priesthood, and played a most important part in the introduction of Buddhism into Ceylon. Before setting out on this mission, Mahindo visited his royal mother at Chétyagiri, and was lodged in "a superb *vihára*," which had been erected by herself. In all this there is no mention of the Great Tope, which may have existed before that time; but till some building is

found in India which can be proved to have existed before that age, it will be safe to assume that this is one of the 84,000 topes said to have been erected by Asoka. Had Sánchi been one of the eight cities which obtained relics of Buddha at the funeral pyre, the case might have been different; but it has been dug into, and found to be a *stupa*, and not a *daghoba*. It consequently was erected to mark some sacred spot or to commemorate some event, and we have no reason to believe that this was done anywhere before Asoka's time.

'On the other hand, two smaller topes on the same platform contained relics of an undoubted historical character. That called No. 2 Tope contained those of ten Buddhist teachers who took part in the third great convocation held under Asoka, and some of whom were sent on missions to foreign countries, to disseminate the doctrines then settled; and No. 3 Tope contained two caskets. One of these enclosed relics of Maha Moggalana, the other of Sariputra, friends and companions of Buddha himself, and usually called his right and left hand disciples. It does not of course follow that this *daghoba* is as old as the time of Buddha; on the contrary, some centuries must elapse before a bone or rag belonging to any mortal becomes so precious that a dome is erected to enshrine it. The great probability seems to be that these relics were deposited there by Asoka himself, in close proximity to the sacred spot which the Great Tope was erected to commemorate. The tope containing relics of his contemporaries must of course be much more modern, probably contemporary with the gateways, which are subsequent to the Christian era.'

San-daw (*Tshan-daw*).—A small pagoda situated amid the hills on the left bank of Sandoway town, Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma. Built in 784 A.D. by King Nyo-kin, to enshrine a hair of Gautama. The inhabitants of Sandoway town spend one day at this temple in March, June, and October of each year, spending the other days during which their feasts last at the pagodas of An-daw and Nan-daw.

Sándi.—*Parganá* in Bílgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north and west by *parganás* Báwan, Barwán, and Katiári; on the south-west and south by the Ganges and *parganá* Bílgrám; and on the east by *parganá* Bangar. The *parganá* is intersected by the Garra river from north to south, and the Rámgangá flows irregularly along or near its western and south-western border. It is divided into two distinct portions by an irregular sandy ridge, which, running from north to south immediately to the east of Sándi town, marks the bank of an ancient channel of the Ganges, long since abandoned by the river in its gradual westward recession. All the villages on and to the east of this ridge are poor, uneven, and sandy. Irrigation is scanty and difficult. On the other hand, all the country to the west of the ridge, or about four-fifths of the

total area of the *parganá*, is a distinctly alluvial tract, levelled and enriched by the floods of three Himálayan rivers, the Garra, Rámgangá, and Ganges, and by minor streams such as the Sendha. All this tract is *tarái*, that is to say, it has been scooped by fluvial action out of the adjacent *bangar* or original plateau; and in it the water level is always so near the surface, that in the dry months percolation largely supplies the want of irrigation, while in the rainy season it is more or less completely flooded. It constitutes, in fact, the flood basin of the three rivers named above. In heavy floods such as those of 1871, a sea of waters spreads from Sándi to Fatehgarh, 20 miles west. The rivers bring down a rich alluvial deposit locally called *seo*, which fertilizes the submerged fields and makes manuring unnecessary. The silt brought down by the Rámgangá in heavy floods is sometimes spread 2 feet thick over the fields. Area, 168 square miles, of which 107 square miles are cultivated. Chief products — wheat, barley, rice, *bájra*, gram, *joár*, and *arhar*. Population (1881) 72,830, namely, males 39,749, and females 33,081. Of the 141 villages in the *parganá*, 80½ are held by Rájputs, 26 by Muhammadans, 11½ by Bráhmans, 5½ by Lodhs, 4 by Káyasths, 1½ by Ahírs, and 12 by Government. *Tálukdárí* tenure prevails in 30½ villages, *zamíndárí* in 61½, and *pattidárí* in 49. Government land revenue, £12,056; equal to an average of 3s. 6d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 3d. per acre of total area.

Sándi.—Town and municipality in Hardoi District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sándi *parganá*; situated on the left bank of the Garra river, on the old route from Sháhjahánpur *viâ* Sháhábád to Lucknow. Lat. 27° 17′ 15″ N., long. 79° 59′ 45″ E. A considerable town, with a population (1881) of 9810, namely, Hindus, 6780; Muhammadans, 3022; and Christians, 8. Municipal income (1883–84), £471, of which £366 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9d. per head. Sándi has a local reputation for the manufacture of a description of cotton carpets (*kalin*). Numerous handsome mosques and tombs of Muhammadan saints. A fine *sarái* or travellers' rest-house is situated in the market in the Nawábganj quarter of the town.

Sandíla.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hardoi District, Oudh, lying between 26° 53′ and 27° 21′ N. lat., and between 80° 18′ and 80° 52′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Hardoi and Misrikh, on the east by Mahmudábád, on the south by Malihábád and Mohan, and on the west by Bílgrám *tahsíls*. Area, 557 square miles, of which 317 are cultivated. Population (1881) 250,406, namely, Hindus 225,496, and Muhammadans 24,910. Number of males, 132,372; females, 118,034; number of villages, 415; average density, 449 persons per square mile. This *tahsíl* comprises the four *parganás* of Sandíla, Kalyánmal, Bálámau, and Gundwa. In 1883 it contained 4 civil and 6 criminal courts, including

a bench of Honorary Magistrates; number of police circles (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular and town police, 110 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 681.

Sandíla.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Gopámau; on the east by Gundwa and Kalyánmal; on the south and south-west by Mohan, Aurás, Safipur, and Bangarmau; and on the west by Bálamau and Mallanwán *parganás*. A poorly wooded tract, with a large area of barren and sandy soil. Area, 329 square miles, of which 170 square miles are cultivated. Chief products—barley, wheat, *bájra*, gram, *arhar*, *mash*, and *joár*. At the time of the survey, barley occupied a fourth of the cultivated area; wheat a fifth; *bájra* and gram together, rather more than a fifth; while another fifth was under *arhar*, *mash*, *joár*, and rice. Other crops—cotton, sugar-cane, poppy, tobacco, and indigo. Population (1881) 151,440, namely, Hindus 130,910, and Muhammadans 20,530. Of the 213 villages comprising the *parganá*, 82 are held by Rájputs, 81 by Muhammadans, 41 by Káyasths, 5 by Bráhmans, 2 by Kurmís, and 1 each by Kalwárs and Lodhs. *Tálukdárí* tenure obtains in 114 villages, 70 are *zamíndárí*, 26 imperfect *pattidárí*, and 3 *bháyáchára*. Government land revenue, £18,299; equal to an average of 3s. 4d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 9d. per acre of total area. The principal land-holding families are Sayyid Musalmáns.

Sandíla.—Town and municipality in Hardoi District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Sandíla *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated 32 miles north-west of Lucknow, and 34 miles south-east of Hardoi town. Lat. 27° 4′ 15″ N., long. 80° 33′ 20″ E. The fourth largest town in Oudh, and the second largest in Hardoi District. Population (1881) 14,865, namely, males 7366, and females 7499. Muhammadans number 7487; Hindus, 7373; and Christians, 5. Municipal income (1883-84), £745, of which £724 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 11¾d. per head of the population. The town contains the usual Sub-divisional civil and criminal courts, police station, dispensary, and Anglo-vernacular school. No buildings of special interest or antiquity. The *bára kambha* or hall of twelve pillars, a stone building, was erected about 150 years ago. Markets are held twice a week, at which *pán* and *ghí* are sold for export in considerable quantities. Station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. During the Mutiny, two severe actions were fought at Sandíla on the 6th and 7th October 1858.

Sandoway (*Than-dwai*).—British District in the Arakan Division, Lower Burma. Area, 3667 square miles. Population (1881) 64,010 souls. Bounded on the north by the Ma-í river, separating it from Kyauk-pyu District; on the east by the Arakan Mountains; on the south by the Gwa river; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. Its

extreme length is 136 miles; its breadth in the north 48, and in the south 24 miles. The administrative head-quarters are at SANDOWAY TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Sandoway District is a mountainous country, the Arakan range sending out spurs which reach to the coast. These in their turn give off numerous sub-spurs, running for the most part parallel to the main chain. The surface configuration of the District is so disrupted by the influence of igneous action that not more than one-eighteenth of the area can be called plain; and except in this plain, and on the hillsides, where clearings are made for *taungya* or nomadic cultivation, the District is covered with dense forest. From the mouth of the Sandoway river northwards, the coast is indented with navigable and intercommunicating tidal creeks, by means of which communication can be kept up without going out to sea. Southwards, it presents a rugged and rocky barrier to the ocean, and has few available harbours. The rivers draining the District are but mountain torrents to within a few miles of the coast. The principal of these are—the Ma-í and the Tan-lwe, falling into the arm of the sea which divides Ramri island from the mainland; the Taung-gup (Toung-goop), which enters the Bay of Bengal by several mouths, between lat. 18° 44′ and 18° 50′ N.; the Sandoway, a tidal river, navigable by the largest boats as far as Sandoway town; the Gwa, which falls into the sea in about lat. 17° 36′ N., forming a good anchorage for steamers and vessels drawing from 9 to 10 feet of water, though the entrance is rendered difficult by rocks and a sandy bar.

The main range of the Arakan Yomas has in the north a direction south-east by south, but it gradually curves towards the west, and, at the source of the Gwa, runs nearly due north and south. In the north, some of the peaks attain an elevation of little less than 5000 feet, which falls to 3200 feet at Shauk-bin, where the Taung-gup road crosses the range. South of lat. 18° 21′ 26″ N., the height rapidly diminishes, and at the sources of the Gwa is only about 890 feet. The chief pass is that from Taung-gup to Pa-daung on the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) in Prome District, a route followed by the main body of the Burmese in their invasion of Arakan in 1784, but found impracticable for troops or beasts of burden in 1825–26. Since then, the road has been considerably widened, and rendered fit for the passage of an armed force. It is now mostly used by traders from Pegu, and the telegraph line to Calcutta is carried along it. Another pass connects Gwa with Le-myet-hna in Bassein.

The three most important timber-trees found in the District are—*pyin-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), used in house-building and for railway sleepers; *in* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), and *ka-gnyin* (Dipterocarpus alatus), from which are extracted resin and oil respectively. *Pyin-ma*

(Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ), *thin-gan* (Hopea odorata), *ka-gnyaung* (Dipterocarpus turbinatus), and many other trees abound. The low ground within tidal limits is covered with dense mangrove jungle. The area of reserved forest in 1883–84 was 307 square miles.

Owing to the wild and inaccessible character of the greater portion of Sandoway District, its geological structure has received very cursory examination. The existence of cretaceous rocks was first established in 1872. Mr. Theobald says that they extend down from Kyauk-pyu District, in lat. 29° 30′ N., certainly as far as Kyein-ta-lí in Sandoway, a distance of 94 miles. Limestone occurs about 4 miles south-south-west of Ma-í, where it is quarried and burned for local use. The rock is argillaceous, very homogeneous in grain, and occasionally seamed with calcite. Other outcrops, also belonging to the cretaceous age, are found in various parts of the District. It is very probable that on examination, the formations in the plains would give evidence of frequent alterations of marine with fresh-water sediments. They certainly indicate nothing of the consolidation of older systems. Limestone, intermixed with the tertiary clays and sands of the lower lands, is abundant and very pure; yielding on analysis carbonate of lime (with traces of iron), 93·6 per cent.; insoluble clay, 6·4. Veins of steatite and white fibrous quartz also occur in the District.

History.—According to the palm-leaf chronicles, there reigned in Baranathi (Benares), at a time when the duration of human life was 90 millions of years, a descendant of the first Buddha of the present epoch, who had sixteen sons; to the eldest of whom, Tha-mú-tí-de-wa, was allotted the country now forming Sandoway District. For him the spirits or Nats built a city, Dwa-ra-wad-dí, near the modern Sandoway. Many ages later, Sek-kya-wad-dí, the embryo Gautama Buddha, was King of Baranathi; and to his son, Kan-myin, he gave all the lands inhabited by the Burmese, Shan, and Malay races. Kan-myin came to Dwa-ra-wad-dí; dispossessed the descendant of Tha-mú-tí-de-wa; and was succeeded by kings of his own line, who ruled for a period represented by a unit followed by 140 ciphers. During the reign of Na-rein-da, the last of these monarchs, the country was attacked by the grandsons of a king who ruled in Mo-gaung.

The legend runs thus:—Arriving at the mouth of the Than-dwe (Sandoway) river, they failed in their attempts to find the city, owing to the devices of its guardian Bí-lú-ma, or, as some say, to its miraculous power of soaring above the earth in times of danger. At length the guardian, being propitiated, withdrew her protection; and the ten brothers then bound the city to the earth with an iron chain, and divided their conquest in ten shares, making Than-dwe ('iron-bound') their capital. But the eight younger brothers were slain in combat with the people, who appear to have risen against them, and the two elder fled.

Henceforth Sandoway appears only as a province of the Arakan kingdom, ravaged alternately by the Burmese and Talaings until the conquest of Arakan by the Burmese in 1784. It was then formed into a governorship, and its *wun* was one of the commanders of the Burmese army which invaded Bengal at the commencement of the first Anglo-Burmese war. The country was ceded to the British by the treaty of Yandabu in 1826; and on the withdrawal of General Morrison's army, one regiment of Native infantry was left at Sandoway. A few years later, the military head-quarters were transferred to Kyaukpyu, and subsequently the small detachment of two companies was also withdrawn.

Antiquities.—On the hills close to Sandoway are three small whitewashed pagodas, the An-daw, Nan-daw, and San-daw. The An-daw is said to have been erected in 761 A.D. by King Min-tsek-kyup, to cover a tooth of Gautama. The building is 242 feet in circumference and 63 feet high. The Nan-daw stands on a hill 480 feet above the level of the plain, and is 38 feet high; it is said to have been built in 763 A.D. by Min-bra, to enshrine a rib of Gautama. The San-daw is assigned to Min-nyo-khin (784 A.D.), and covers a hair of Gautama brought from Ceylon. Three times a year pilgrims resort to these pagodas, remaining one day at each temple on each occasion. Two stones inscribed in Sanskrit of the 8th century have been found near the Sandoway river. Silver coins struck by ancient kings of Arakan are occasionally met with, some of which have the dates and names in Burmese characters, whilst others bear Persian or Nágari inscriptions. Celts or stone implements are abundant.

Population.—Mountainous and forest-clad, Sandoway District seems to have been always sparsely inhabited, but the increase of population since the British occupation has been proportionately larger than in other parts of Arakan. In 1828, the number of inhabitants was 19,538; by 1852, it had risen to 42,886; in 1872, to 54,725; and in 1881, to 64,010, namely, males 32,706, and females 31,304. Number of villages, 469; occupied houses, 11,639; unoccupied houses, 773; average density of population, 17·66 persons per square mile. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 14,058, and girls 13,486; total children, 27,544, or 43 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 18,648, and females 17,818; total adults, 36,466, or 57 per cent. of the population.

Buddhists number 56,458; Nat-worshippers, or persons of non-Buddhist indigenous religion, 4888; Muhammadans, 2509; Hindus, 124; and Christians, 31. Taken by language — persons speaking Burmese (including Arakanese) numbered 58,061; Chin, 5045; Karen, 107; Shan, 59; Bengalí, 399; Hindustání, 263; and a very few speaking English, Greek, Chinese, Tamil, Telugu, and Manipuri.

The Muhammadans are of two classes. The Me-du, who ascribe their origin to members of a colony from near Ava, who originally came as soldiers with the invading Burman army, and who, about 70 or more years ago, were joined by many of their co-religionists who left Burma during a famine. The Kaman, who claim to have come originally from Delhi, and to be descended from the followers of the unfortunate Sháh Shujá, who was put to death by the King of Arakan, with whom he had sought refuge from his brother Aurangzeb. Neither of these classes differ much from their Buddhist neighbours, except in religion and education, of which they have less. The Hindus are mainly convicts transported from India many years ago, when Sandoway was a convict station. Chin, a race of mountaineers, have long inhabited the north and east, and of late years have spread into the plains. See article THAYET-MYO.

There is (1881) no town in the District with more than 2000 inhabitants, and by far the greater number of villages, namely, 381, have fewer than 200; 80 only having from 200 to 500; 6 from 500 to 1000; and 1 from 1000 to 2000 inhabitants. These are nearly all situated between the sea-coast and the slopes of the Arakan Yomas. The chief places in the District are—SANDOWAY, the administrative head-quarters, situated on the Sandoway river, and containing the usual public buildings; population (1881) 1901: TAUNG-GUP, on the Taung-gup river, and head-quarters of a township; population 1778: GWA, a trading village, with a population of 1072; KYEIN-TA-LI, a small village at the mouth of the river of the same name.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, namely, 3667 square miles, only 60 square miles were returned in 1883–84 as cultivable, and about 75 as under actual cultivation. In 1881, the total agricultural population numbered 53,662, or 83·83 per cent. of the District population. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £6441, or an average of 2s. 9⅜d. per cultivated acre. The chief crops are rice, sesamum, tobacco, cotton, pepper, sugar-cane, *dhani* palms, and yams. In 1883–84, the area under the various crops was as follows:—Rice, 36,754 acres; oil-seeds, 981; sugar-cane, 1044; cotton, 336; vegetables, 292; *dhani* palms, 2355; tobacco, 1874; plantains, 664; mixed fruit-trees, 606; chillies, 320; *taungya*, or hill gardens, 3986; miscellaneous crops, 896. Land suited for rice yields on an average 940 lbs. per acre; cotton, 480 lbs.; oil-seeds, 400 lbs.; sugar, 1040 lbs.; tobacco, 400 lbs.; and chillies, 240 lbs. Sesamum and cotton are grown principally with rice in *taungya* or hill gardens. The cultivation of tobacco is extending; the best is grown on the alluvial soil deposited during the south-west monsoon by the torrents of the Yoma range in their short course to the sea. The Cuba plant was introduced by Captain (now Sir A. P.) Phayre and Captain (now

Lieutenant-General) Fytche, and thrives well; but is considered by the natives inferior in flavour to their own tobacco, which is said to have been originally brought from China. Madder is produced near the Gwa, and the cultivation is very profitable; it is exported to Bassein.

As an almost universal rule, the land in the plains is held by small proprietors directly from the State; the average size of the holdings is 5 acres. In 1883–84, the average rent of land suited for rice was 7s. an acre; oil-seeds, sugar, cotton, tobacco, and chillies, 3s. 3d. Land is not often mortgaged, but very high interest is charged for loans. If a large amount is required, the land is generally made over to the mortgagee for several years on the payment of a lump sum, for which no other interest is charged. Labourers engaged for ploughing receive 2 rupees, or 4s., per acre and their food; and when hired for transplanting or reaping, a bushel of grain per diem. When land is leased the rent is almost invariably paid in kind, and averages one-third of the yield. In 1883–84, the average prices per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—cotton, 12s.; rice, 5s.; sugar, 8s.; salt, 2s. 3d.; tobacco, £1, 8s.; oil-seeds, 8s.; chillies, 24s.; plough bullocks, £3, 10s. each; sheep and goats, £1 each; buffaloes, £4, 10s. The wages of skilled labour were from 1s. to 1s. 6d., and of unskilled labour, 9d. a day. In 1883–84, the agricultural stock and implements consisted of—Cows and bullocks, 11,777; buffaloes, 25,147; pigs, 2355; sheep and goats, 484; horses and ponies, 32; elephants, 7; ploughs, 14,592; carts, 790; boats, 1692.

Manufactures, etc.—The most important manufacture is thatch from the leaves of the *dhani* (Nípa) palm, which is in great demand in Akyab and Kyauk-pyu, as well as locally. Cotton cloth and silk dresses are woven by the women in almost every house. The silk used is obtained from the southern township, where silkworms are bred, and from the valley of the Irawadi. There is a large export trade with Akyab, Kyauk-pyu, and Bassein in rice, tobacco, sesamum, plantains, salt, salt-fish, *nga-pí* or fish paste, and boats. The imports consist of piece-goods, cotton twist, betel-nuts, crockery, and hardware. In 1883–84, the total length of water communication in Sandoway District was 130 miles; of roads, 20½ miles.

Administration.—Under Burmese rule, the regular revenue was derived from transit dues, a poll tax, and a tax on land. Five baskets (each holding 40 lbs.) of rice in the husk were taken for each pair of buffaloes used, and half a basket was claimed by the keeper of the royal granary as 'wastage.' But there was no fixed rate, and the governors often exacted more. In 1828, it was calculated that every head of a family paid £1, 15s. a year to the Government, whilst the annual cost of living for four persons was only £4, 4s. In 1851, the revenue amounted to £8362; in 1871, to £11,744, including local funds. In 1877–78, the imperial revenue was £14,423, of which £5685 was land revenue;

the local revenue was £580. The incidence of taxation of all kinds was 3s. 0½d. per head. In 1883–84, the gross revenue was £13,978, of which £6749 was land revenue. In Burmese times, the country was administered by a *wun* or governor, under whom were the *sit-ke*, *myo-uk thugyí*, and other subordinates. It appears from the records at Sandoway that the *thugyí* generally levied their demands thus:—From married people, well off, with families, bond servants, cattle, etc., £1, 14s.; married people not so well off, £1, 10s.; married people dependent upon their own labour, or too old for work, and newly married people with means, 18s.; newly married people with little or no substance, 7s. *Púngyís* (priests), the maimed and infirm, Government servants, and bachelors, were exempt from taxation.

For some time after the British occupation, the country was in a disturbed state. It has now settled down into a peaceful District, administered by a Deputy Commissioner with extensive judicial powers, who is the chief revenue authority under the Commissioner of the Division. Under him are the extra-Assistant Commissioners. The regular police consisted in 1883–84 of 196 officers and men, or about 1 policeman to every 18 square miles or every 327 inhabitants. There is a jail at Sandoway town; the daily average of prisoners in 1883 was 15. The total cost was £419. The hospital and civil dispensary, also at the head-quarters town, gave relief in 1883 to 83 in-door and 5889 out-door patients. Little education has, till lately, been given except by the Buddhist monks. The Census of 1881 showed 2371 boys and 83 girls as under instruction, besides 9051 males and 105 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The Muhammadans were still more backward; in towns the children are better instructed, and in some cases learn both Arabic and Hindustání. A middle-class school was opened in 1876, and had 44 pupils on the rolls at the end of the year, and 116 in 1883–84. Total number of schools in 1883–84 under public management, indigenous and private, 20; number of scholars, 683.

Climate.—From November to February the dews are exceedingly heavy, and the nights very chilly, the terrestrial radiation thermometer often recording only 38° F. From February to May, dense fogs rise during the evenings, and the wind blows from the west. Towards the middle of May, storms of thunder and lightning are of frequent occurrence. The average rainfall registered for the twenty years ending 1881 was 212·02 inches. Total rainfall in 1883, 223·18 inches. The maximum temperature was 103° F., and the minimum 61° F. The town of Sandoway is considered by some to be the healthiest place in Arakan. The prevalent diseases of the District are agues and fevers. [For further information regarding Sandoway, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority, vol. ii. pp. 606–626; the *British*

Burma Census Report for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of Burma.]

Sandoway.—Chief town and head-quarters of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 18° 27′ 35″ N., and long. 94° 24′ 36″ E., on the Sandoway river, about 15 miles from its mouth, but only 4½ miles from the sea in a direct line. The town lies in a basin about 12 miles long by 1 broad, which is cultivated with rice, and surrounded by hills, the only outlets being those through which the river flows. The larger portion of the town, which is laid out regularly, lies on the left bank of the river; whilst on the right side is a long straggling suburb, buried in trees, and presenting the appearance of an independent village. It contains the court-houses, police station, market, jail, hospital, dispensary, and circuit-house.

Sandoway is a very ancient town, and is often mentioned in Arakanese history as the capital of a kingdom, or more probably a petty chieftainship. Its original name was Dwa-ra-wad-dí; but according to a current legend it was called Than-dwe (by which appellation it is now known to the Burmese and Arakanese, Sandoway being an English corruption), from its having been miraculously fastened to the earth by iron chains.

After the capture of Arakan town in 1824, a force was sent southwards to attack Ramri and Sandoway. General MacBean reached Sandoway on the 30th of April, and occupied the town without resistance. After the cessation of the war, it remained for some years the head-quarters of the troops garrisoning Arakan. The garrison has now been altogether withdrawn. When the British first took the town the number of inhabitants was found to be 4500. In 1877–78, the population was returned at 1617; and in 1881, 1901.

Sandoway carries on a small coasting trade in rice, vegetables, etc., and a land traffic in silk and other piece-goods with Prome and Bassein over the Arakan Mountains valued at £2000 per annum. Owing to the numerous creeks intersecting the coast, boats can get as far as Akyab without entering the open sea. In the neighbourhood of Sandoway are the three pagodas of An-daw, Nan-daw, and San-daw, to which pilgrims resort three times a year, spending one day on each occasion at each shrine.

Sandoway.—River in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma. It rises in the Arakan Hills, and, flowing west-north-west, falls into the sea in about lat. 18° 31′ N. About 15 miles up the river is Sandoway town, which can be reached by large boats. The anchorage inside the mouth is from 5 to 6 fathoms; the tide is felt for a short distance above Sandoway town. About 50 miles from the entrance is a sulphuretted hydrogen spring in the bed of the river, the water of which attains a heat of 110° F.

Sandoway Myoma. — Township in Sandoway District, Lower Burma, sometimes called the central township. Bounded on the west by the Bay of Bengal. It comprises 14 revenue circles; chief town, SANDOWAY, on the Sandoway river. In 1881, the cultivated area was 20,667 acres; products—rice, tobacco, sesamum, cotton, pepper, sugar-cane, cocoa-nuts, hemp, and miscellaneous garden stuff. Exports—agricultural produce; imports—European cotton and woollen goods, silk goods from Prome and Bassein, and earth-oil and lacquered ware from the latter District. Good communication by boat.

Sandru.—Pass in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab, across the Himálayan range in Kunáwar. Lat. 31° 24′ N., long. 78° 2′ E. (Thornton). Said to be open during only two months of the year. Elevation above sea-level, about 16,000 feet.

Sandúr (*Sundoor, Sandhur?*). — Native State within the British District of Bellary, Madras Presidency, lying between 14° 58′ and 15° 12′ N. lat., and between 76° 28′ and 76° 43′ E. long. Area, 164 square miles, of which a large proportion is hill jungle. The State is bounded on the south by the Kúdligi *táluk*, and on all other sides, save a small portion bordering on Mysore State, by the Hospet *táluk* of Bellary District. The tract is elliptical in shape, stretching from north-west to south-east, and is almost entirely shut in by hills, which isolate it from the neighbouring country. Population of the State (1881) 10,532. The annual revenue from all sources somewhat exceeds £4500.

Physical Aspects.—One chain of hills on the western limits of the State is known as the Sandúr or RAMANDRUG range (*q.v.*); and from the north, the Timmappa Hills run down to form its eastern boundary. These are crossed by three principal passes. On the east, the Yettinhatti or Bhimagandi *ghát* connects the State with Bellary; on the south-west, through the Oblagandi gorge, runs an excellent cart-road for through traffic. The Rámangandi valley between the two main converging ranges is the northern entrance, and has a good road to Hospet. The principal elevations are the Rámandrug, Kumáraswámi, and Kombatharavu plateaux. All these attain an elevation of about 3000 feet. The sides of the hills are in most places forest-clad, but indiscriminate felling and charcoal-burning have done much to keep down the more valuable timbers.

Several streams water the State. These, for the most part, find an outlet in the Sandúr river or Nári Nálá through the Yettinhatti gorge, and feed the Daroji tank in Hospet. On the hills, tigers, leopards, hogs, porcupines, bears, *sámbhar* deer, and jungle sheep are found. The prevailing rock is a chloritic slate, often highly impregnated with oxide of iron, and crested in many places with mural ridges of ferruginous quartz rock, tinted with a variety of colours, from a steel-grey to a deep

liver-brown. This rock often forms whole hillocks, always, however, overlying the slate. On the hills generally, iron-ore is obtained. It is often of a rich quality, easily got at, and usually of a friable description. On Rámandrug, various coloured clays are procurable without difficulty. The prevailing soil in the valley is a rich heavy loam, interspersed here and there with patches of black cotton-soil. In various parts, lime is obtained near the surface, chiefly in nodular form. The ascent to the Kumáraswámi pagoda passes over an extensive bed of lava conglomerate; and the same feature characterizes part of the Rámandrug range.

History. — The founder of the Sandúr family was a Maráthá named Malají Ráo Ghorpae, an officer in the Bijápur army, whose son Biráji entered the service of Sivají the Great. The State had been previously held by a Bidar Poligár, but Biráji's son Sidají took Sandúr from the Bedars, and his conquest was confirmed to him and his heirs by Sambhají, the successor of Sivají. Sidají died in 1715, and was succeeded in Sandúr by his second son, Gopál Ráo, whose fate is involved in obscurity. All that is known is, that Sandúr was taken by Haidar Alí some time after his capture of Gooty (Guti) in 1779; that Haidar began, and Tipú completed, the fort; and that Gopál Ráo's son, Siva Ráo, was killed in battle in 1785, in a vain attempt to recover his patrimony.

In 1790, Siva Ráo's brother, Venkat Ráo, acting on behalf of his nephew Sidají, expelled Tipú's garrison, but did not attempt to occupy Sandúr till the fall of Seringapatam. The Peshwá then claimed the State as his own, and presented it to Yaswant Ráo Ghorpae, a distinguished officer of Sindhia's army, who belonged to the same family as the former holders. Yaswant Ráo did not enter into possession; and the widow of Sidají, who died in 1796, adopted Siva Ráo, a son of Khandi Ráo, the younger brother of Yaswant Ráo. The Peshwá made an unsuccessful attempt upon Sandúr in 1815; and at his request in 1817, the British Government, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Bassein, sent a force under Sir Thomas Munro to reduce it. In October of that year, the fort and State were surrendered. On Sir Thomas Munro's recommendation, Siva Ráo received as compensation a *jágír* of £1000.

In 1818, however, after the downfall of the Peshwá's Government, Siva Ráo was restored to his State; and in 1826 he received a *sanad* from Government confirming the lands of Sandúr to him and his heirs free of any pecuniary demands. Siva Ráo was succeeded in 1840 by a nephew named Venkat Ráo, who died in 1861. His eldest son, Siva Shan Mukha Ráo, being then a minor, did not receive the *sanad* till 1863. On the 24th January 1876, Lord Northbrook, then Governor-General, conferred on him the title of Rájá, as a hereditary distinction

to be assumed by his successors on formal recognition of their succession. Siva Shan Mukha Ráo died in May 1878, and was succeeded by his half-brother Rám Chendra Vittala Ráo, the present Rájá, to whom the *sanad* was granted in February 1879. The Rájá has the entire management of the revenue and police of his State, and the duty of administering civil justice. In the administration of criminal justice, he is required to refer all cases calling for capital punishment for the orders of the Madras Government. The Collector of Bellary acts as Government Agent. The chief holds a *sanad* conferring rights of adoption, granted by the British Government.

In the office of the Agent of the Rájá at Sandúr is a copper-plate document evidencing the grant of land in *inám* to village carpenters, and the building of villages by a 'Narpati' king.

Population.—The population of Sandúr State in 1865 was 12,962. At the Census of 1871 it was returned as 14,994; and the Madras Administration Report for 1877–78 gives the number as 14,999. It is probable that this estimate was considerably in excess of the actual population, as the Census was taken a few days previous to the Kumáraswámi festival, when there was a considerable influx of strangers. The Census of 1881 gives the population as 10,532. The decrease of nearly 30 per cent. since 1871 is due to the loss caused by death and emigration during the famine of 1876–78, and the subsequent removal of the military depôt from Rámandrug. According to the Census of 1881, males numbered 5298, and females 5234, occupying 2173 houses in 23 villages. Hindus numbered 9000; Muhammadans, 1521; and Christians, 11. In caste and race, the people are identical with those of the surrounding District of Bellary. On the plateaux there is a hill tribe of hunters, called Bedars, divided into two clans. They are a healthy and industrious people; and although possessing peculiar customs, they are probably Dravidian Hindus, and in no way connected with the aboriginal tribes, such as Malayális, etc.

Places of Interest.—The two places of most interest in the State are the important sanatorium of RAMANMALAI, situated 3150 feet above the sea, and used chiefly as a convalescent depôt for troops; and the temple of Kumáraswámi, of which Newbold gives the following description:—'It is situated near the basin of a ravine, not far from the summit of the south-west part of the range of hills that enclose the valley; and after an ascent of 4 miles. The temple is neither large nor magnificent, but has an air of antiquity, of which its whitewashed exterior and gilded cupola cannot entirely divest it. The *gopuram* faces the east; on the left of the entrance is the shrine of the goddess Párvati, consort of Siva; to the west is the image of her son Kumáraswámi, the presiding genius of the place; and to the right stands the shrine of the destroyer Siva. In front is a square pool called "Aguste

Tirtha." In front of the *gopuram* is a small octangular column of hewn stone, at the foot of which lie three trunkless stone heads. The largest is that of the giant Tarakasam, slain by Kumáraswámi. The great festival occurs triennially, and at this the number of pilgrims has latterly amounted to 25,000 or 30,000; the temple revenue averages from 15,000 to 20,000 rupees (say £1500 to £2000) annually. A *Shasanam* in old Kanarese is still preserved, which grants the endowment of the temple. It was given in S. 615 (713 A.D.) by a king of the Marala dynasty, named Bijala Náyak.' The climate of Kumáraswámi is described as very agreeable, although, owing to its easterly position, it is not so cool as that of Rámandrug.

Revenue.—The revenue of the State is at present about £3700, of which £1800 is derived from land. The land revenue includes grants of land to dependants and service lands; other lands to the annual value of £1300 are alienated. It has been the policy of the present Rájá to increase the security of the land tenures, and render them permanent. The peasants may cut wood for all agricultural purposes free of payment; nor are they liable to be charged for firewood which they themselves carry home. The poorer classes were formerly permitted to cut firewood and grass in the jungles, and to sell it in the *bázár* free of tax; but under recent regulations each head-load of firewood brought for sale is subject to a tax of 3 *pies* (or ⅜d.). In 1882, an arrangement was entered into between the Rájá and the Government, according to which 40,000 acres of forest land were leased to the latter for 25 years at 4 *annas* (6d.) per acre per annum, reserving to Government the option of renewing the lease on the same terms at the end of that period, and every succeeding period of 25 years.

The average annual rainfall of Sandúr is about 36 inches. The chief village is Sandúr; population (1881) 4096, occupying 793 houses.

Sandúr (*Sundoor*, or more properly *Rámandrug*).—Hills in Bellary District, Madras. A range of hills about 15 miles long, running from south-east to north-west, ending abruptly near Hospet. This range forms the greater part of the western boundary of the Native State of SANDUR, dividing it from the Hospet *táluk*. Rámandrug, 3150 feet above the sea, is the principal peak, and was selected as far back as 1846 for the sanitarium of RAMANMALAI. The range consists of gneiss much weathered. The upper part of Rámandrug is clay ironstone, and the slopes consist of a variety of schistose rocks containing manganese and antimony. Tigers are found in these hills, and much useful wood comes from them.

Sandwíp (*Sundeep*).—Island in the Bay of Bengal; situated off the cost of Chittagong and Noákhálí, and forming part of the latter District. Lat. 22° 24′ to 22° 37′ N., long. 91° 22′ to 91° 35′ E. The largest of many *chars* formed by the MEGHNA as it enters the sea. For long, a process

of diluvion went on in the south of Sandwíp, but the soil re-formed and reappeared in 1865 as the Kálí *char*, many miles long, lying parallel with the south face of the island, at a distance of 2 or 3 miles. This *char* already acts as a bar to protect Sandwíp from further diluvion, and will eventually, in all probability, become attached to it by the silting up of the intermediate channel.

Sandwíp early attracted the notice of travellers. Cæsar Frederick, the Venetian (1565), described the inhabitants as 'Moors;' and stated that the island was one of the most fertile places in the country, densely populated, and well cultivated. He mentions the extraordinary cheapness of provisions; and adds that 200 ships were laden yearly with salt, and that such was the abundance of materials for shipbuilding, that the Sultan of Constantinople found it cheaper to have his vessels built here than at Alexandria. Purchas (*circ.* 1620) states that most of the inhabitants near the shore were Muhammadans; and there are several mosques on Sandwíp Island two hundred years old. Sir Thomas Herbert (*circ.* 1625) bears testimony to the fertility of the island, which he describes as one of the fairest and most fruitful spots in all India. The cocoa-nut palm flourishes in Sandwíp, and the nuts are exported to Chittagong and Akyab. Sugar-cane is also cultivated to a small extent.

The island of Sandwíp figured conspicuously in the contests of the 17th century between the Arakanese, Muhammadans, and Portuguese (see CHITTAGONG DISTRICT), and during that period numerous forts were erected. In one of these, the Muhammadan troops took refuge in March 1609, when the Portuguese landed on the island. But the fort was besieged and captured, and the defenders put to the sword. In 1616, Sandwíp was taken from the Portuguese by the Arakanese. In 1665, Sháistá Khán, the Muhammadan Nawáb of Bengal, determined to reconquer the island. An interesting account of his expedition, by the French traveller Bernier, was translated in the *Calcutta Review* for 1871, and is quoted in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 243–246.

Until 1822, the island formed part of Chittagong, but in that year it was made over to the newly formed District of Noákhálí. It had, from the time when it came under British administration (1760), formed a constant source of disquiet. It afforded an asylum for the refuse of the river Districts from Dacca southwards, and had a mixed population of Hindus, Muhammadans, and Maghs, who formed agricultural colonies, fishing settlements, piratical villages, and robber communities. The subordinate tenants kept up a bitter quarrel with the landholder-in-chief, and every class seemed to have a grudge against the rest, and some complaint to make to Government. But the firm administration of the British officials gradually produced its

effect. A Commissioner was appointed to measure and partition the island. His appearance, however, was at first only the signal for new disorders. On the one hand, he complained of 'obstructions and difficulties' thrown in the way of executing his duty; on the other hand, the *tálukdárs* forwarded a bitter petition and lament. An enterprising native gentleman proposed, in May 1785, to relieve the officials of further difficulty by taking Sandwíp in farm. But the Government was resolved to have the work thoroughly done, and rejected his offer. Accordingly, the troublesome island was placed under the direct management of the Collector, who was ordered to conduct a land settlement.

The administration of justice in Sandwíp was formerly under the authority of an officer called a *faujdár*, resident in the island. But from a Report (dated September 1779) by Mr. Duncan, specially deputed to Sandwíp, it appears that when Government ceased to maintain a fortress on the island, the *faujdár* was no longer retained, and justice was administered by an inferior officer with the title of *dárogá*. This official had not, however, uncontrolled jurisdiction. From the year 1760, if not from an earlier date, he was entirely under the authority of the *náib ahad-dár*. It was the duty of the *dárogá* and his assistants to prepare cases for hearing; and on fixed days in each week the *náib ahad-dár* would sit in his court of justice, attended by the *dárogás*, *kánúngos*, and *zamíndárs*, to dispose of all cases brought before him. 'This court,' writes Mr. Duncan, 'took cognizance of all matters, civil and criminal—its jurisdiction being only restrained as to matters of revenue, the cognizance of which rested with the *ahad-dár* in his separate capacity. In matters of debt, the court retained the fourth part of the sum in litigation, and enacted discretionary fines for theft, gang-robbery (*dákáití*), fornication, assaults, and the like.'

Among the miscellaneous inquiries conducted by Mr. Duncan in 1779, was one relating to complaints of slaves, or persons reported to be slaves, against their masters. 'This unfortunate race of mankind,' says Mr. Duncan, 'bears in Sandwíp a larger proportion to the other inhabitants than perhaps in any other District in the Province; there is hardly a householder, however indigent, who has not at least one slave, and the majority have many in their families. Their number also very soon increases by marriage, in which they are encouraged by their masters, the custom of the country being such that a free woman, on marrying a male slave, reduces herself and her family to be the perpetual slaves of her husband's master, who continues ever after to retain them in the same bondage.' One man alone was said to possess more than 1500 slaves. The principal cause assigned by Mr. Duncan for the great extent to which slavery prevailed in Sandwíp, was 'the extreme cheapness and abundance of grain in

the island, so that as often as there is any scarcity in Dacca District, it attracts people to Sandwíp, where it has been common for many of them to sell themselves and their posterity for maintenance.' Although Mr. Duncan in 1779 set at liberty only 15 slaves and their families, yet none of his proceedings created more general apprehension than his taking cognizance of this particular grievance, because all the principal people were immediately interested.

From its low-lying position, Sandwíp is peculiarly exposed to inundation from storm-waves, and suffered severely in loss of life and property by the cyclones of 1864 and 1876. The calamity of the latter year was the severest on record. The following account of the inundation is quoted from a report by Mr. Pellew, the Collector of Noákhálí:—'The people in the villages on the south-western coast stated that the inundation commenced with a wave at least 6 feet high, which burst over the land from the south-east. Very shortly afterwards, another wave, 6 feet higher, came from the south-west. These waves came suddenly, just like the bore, mounting up and curling over. The second wave is described as lifting the roofs of the houses, and whirling the contents—human beings, furniture, etc.—violently outside. The mat walls, with their wooden posts, were swept away, the latter being either broken off short or wrested out of the ground. All this was done suddenly; people described it as occurring in one second of time. Behind each wave the water did not fall again, but remained, so that after the second wave there was 12 feet of water over the land.

'In the centre of the island the water came up less suddenly. The Government Pleader at Harishpur was taking refuge from the storm in his new office. Suddenly an alarm was raised that the water was coming. He got on the wooden dais, but the water immediately covered this. He then went up to his neck in water, along a raised path, to the bank of his tank, which is about 12 feet high. He told me that the rising of the water did not take longer than two minutes from first to last, and that he was only just in time. The bank of the tank was not more than 10 yards from his office.'

In many villages whole families were swept away, and in some of the *chars* the entire population was destroyed. 'In the village of Nayámasti,' writes Mr. Pellew, 'one man was the sole survivor of thirteen; four men were the survivors of a household of twenty-five. The women have perished in immense numbers. Most of the men who remain are wifeless. In Kangáli Char, the Sub-Inspector of Police found nothing but two wild buffaloes alive, and the corpses of men, cows, and buffaloes. In Char Maulavi, out of 177 people, 137 died.'

For the first few days after this cyclone of 1876, there were several

attempts at plundering, and demoralization prevailed among the low Muhammadan population. Men, in gangs and singly, armed with cudgels, bills, and hatchets, were, the Collector reported, wandering about the inundated tracts, and breaking open and looting all they could lay their hands upon, whether under the care of owners or not. This lawlessness was, however, rapidly suppressed; and the people soon returned to the sites of their former houses, and busied themselves in drying their grain and in saving what they could of their property. Throughout the devastated tracts, 'the demeanour of those who really bore the brunt of the storm was,' Sir Richard Temple states, 'marked by that enduring fortitude under suffering which distinguishes the native character.'

The number of deaths was officially estimated at 40,000, out of a total population of 87,016. Cholera set in soon after the cyclone had passed over. Although a large medical staff was immediately despatched to the District, the epidemic continued to rage to such an extent, that when Mr. Pellew visited the Sandwíp islands, the mortality from the plague threatened in some places to exceed that from the storm itself. The returns for thirty-three police-beats in South Sandwíp, with a population of 10,855 souls, gave the deaths by drowning as 1063, whereas those from cholera in the same tract had by December 1876 amounted to 764. The pollution of the tanks and watercourses, both by the salt-water inundation and by the corpses of men and the carcases of cattle, added to the other evils resulting from the cyclone; while the stench from the dead tainting the air throughout the inundated tract aggravated the plague of cholera. Nearly all the scavenger animals—jackals, dogs, and even vultures—perished by the storm and the wave; and for weeks after the inundation, the land was covered with the dead bodies of men and cattle, preserved by the salt-water from rapid decomposition. The total population of Sandwíp Island in 1881 was returned at 72,467, showing a decrease since 1872 of 14,549, or 16·72 per cent.

Sángakherá.—Village in Hoshangábád *tahsíl*, Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2957, namely, Hindus, 2592; Muhammadans, 118; and non-Hindu aborigines, 247.

Sángala.—Ruins in Jhang District, Punjab; standing on a small rocky hill, upon the border of Gujránwála District; now known as Sánglawála Tiba, and identified by General Cunningham with the Sákala of the Bráhmans, the Ságal of Buddhism, and the Sángala of Alexander's historians. The hill rises to a height of 215 feet above the surrounding plain on its north side, and slopes southward till it ends in an abrupt bank only 32 feet in height, crowned in early times by a brick wall, traces of which still exist. The whole intervening area is strewn with large antique bricks, great quantities of which have

been removed during recent years. An extensive swamp covers the approach on the south and east, the least defensible quarters, with a general depth of 3 feet in the rains, but dry during the summer. This must have been a large lake in the days of Alexander, which has since silted up by detritus from the hill above. On the north-east side of the hill, General Cunningham found the remains of two considerable buildings, with bricks of enormous size. Close by, stands an old well, lately cleared out by wandering tribes. On the north-west side, about 1000 feet distant, rises a low ridge of rock, known as Munda-ka-pura, 30 feet in height, also covered by brick remains.

The earliest notice of the locality occurs in the *Mahábhárata*, where Sákala figures as the capital of the Mádras or Játakas, and the Báhikas, situated upon the Apagá rivulet, west of the Irávati or Rávi, and approached from the east by pleasant paths through the Pilu forest. The neighbourhood bears the name of Mádra-des, or country of the Mádras, to the present day. The Apagá rivulet has been identified by General Cunningham with the Ayak *nadí*, a small stream which has its rise in the Jámmu hills north-east of Siálkot, but which is now quite dry in the neighbourhood of Sángala.

In Buddhist legends, the city reappears as Ságal, whither seven kings made their way to carry off Prabhávati, the wife of King Kusa. That monarch, however, met them outside the gates, mounted upon an elephant, and shouted with so loud a voice that his words were heard over the whole world, and the seven kings fled away in terror. Arrian, Curtius, and Diodorus all notice Sángala, 'a great city, defended not only by a wall, but by a swamp,' which was deep enough to drown several of the inhabitants who attempted to swim across. Alexander seems to have turned out of his direct line of march to punish the Kathæans of Sángala, who had withheld their allegiance. He stormed the outpost of Munda-ka-pura, crowded with fugitives from other cities, and then, breaching the walls by means of a mine, captured the town by assault. Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited Sákala in 630 A.D., found the fortifications in ruins, but traced their foundations for a circuit of 3½ miles. In the midst of the remains, a small portion of the ancient city, 1 mile in circuit, was still inhabited, and contained a Buddhist monastery with 100 monks, and two *stupas*, one of them founded by the famous Emperor Asoka. The accurate details of the Chinese traveller have been principally instrumental in settling the identity of Sánglawála Tiba with the historical site.

Sangam.—Anicut and village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Penner river, 38 miles from the sea and 20 miles above the anicut at Nellore town. The object of the anicut is to extend irrigation along the northern bank of the Penner, commanding an area of 220 square miles. This tract of country already contains many

tanks, and is partially irrigated by cuts from the Penner. The construction of the anicut will render certain the existing irrigation, and will largely increase it. Present irrigation, 44,053 acres; estimated increase, 49,947 acres; total, 94,000 acres. From the anicut, a main channel, leading from a head sluice on the north bank of the river, will supply two large existing reservoirs, namely the Kanigiri and Duvur tanks. From the former, the irrigation channels will be taken off.

When finished, the anicut will be 4290 feet in length, or nearly three times the length of the Penner anicut at Nellore. Its crest will be 7 feet above the deep bed of the river, or 105 feet above mean sea-level. The head sluice (which was finished in 1884) has 21 vents of 6 feet span, and is designed to carry 4800 cubic feet of water per second (when the water in the river is flush with the anicut crest). The water will be distributed in the following proportion to the reservoirs:—Kanigiri tank, cubic feet per second, 4576·5; Duvur tank, cubic feet per second, 223·5. The present capacity of the Kanigiri tank is to be greatly enlarged. The total capacity of the two reservoirs will ultimately be — Kanigiri tank, 6419 millions of cubic feet; Duvur tank, 1043 millions of cubic feet; total, 7462 millions of cubic feet. When finished, the Kanigiri tank will be the largest reservoir in the Madras Presidency.

It is estimated that the works will be completed in 1889–90. The estimate of the work amounts to £356,905, and was sanctioned by the Secretary of State in February 1881. It is anticipated that, on completion of the works, the annual revenue will amount to £23,800. The estimate of annual working expenses is £5026, and the net revenue should therefore be £18,774, or 5·26 per cent. on the total capital.

Sangam village is situated on the north bank of the Penner river, 20 miles above Nellore town. Population (1881) 1212, occupying 250 houses.

Sangameshwar. — Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 557 square miles. Population (1881) 104,640, namely, males 50,379, and females 54,261, occupying 20,434 houses in 179 villages. Hindus number 99,249; Muhammadans, 4778; and 'others,' 613. The chief river is the Shástri, which cuts the Sub-division nearly in half. Fair amount of alluvial soil in the river valleys, yielding average crops of rice and pulse. Almost all the rest of the Sub-division is crumbled trap. The area of actual cultivation in 1877–78 was 20,423 acres; cereals and millets occupied 19,136 acres; pulses, 736 acres; oil-seeds, 467 acres; fibres, 28 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 56 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 59 men. Land revenue (1878), £12,620. Head-quarters, since 1878, at Deorukh

(Devrukh); population (1876) 2660; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Sangameshwar.—Old head-quarters of Sangameshwar *táluk*, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Shástri river, about 20 miles from the coast. Lat. 17° 9′ N., and long. 73° 36′ E. Population (1877) 2475; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. The river, which 35 years ago was navigable for the largest vessels to the Sangameshwar quay, is now impassable six miles lower down. Trade in grain, piece-goods, and salt fish. During the famine of 1877–78, 1440 tons of grain were forwarded from Bombay through Sangameshwar to the Deccan. Early in 1878, 55 houses were burnt; and a few weeks later (March 16th) a disastrous conflagration completely destroyed the Sub-divisional offices and 75 private houses. On the destruction of the public offices, the head-quarters of Sangameshwar Sub-division were moved to the more central and convenient village of Deorukh (Devrukh).

Sangamner.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 708 square miles; greatest length, 40 miles; greatest breadth, 30 miles. Population (1872) 68,765; (1881) 68,357, namely, males 34,770, and females 33,587, occupying 11,767 houses, in 1 town and 151 villages. Hindus number 63,488; Muhammadans, 3728; and 'others,' 1141. The Sub-division is divided into three distinct portions by the two mountain ranges which traverse it in a parallel direction. The chief rivers are the Právara and the Mula. The Právara flows in the valley between the two mountain ranges. With the exception of irrigation from the Ojhar canal, garden cultivation is carried on chiefly by means of wells. A large dam of solid masonry, 830 feet long with a maximum height of 29 feet, was built in 1873 across the rocky bed of the Právara close to the village of Ojhar-Khurd. Total cost of the dam, together with the head-works, about £6000. The canal which leads the water from the work is on the north side of the river; total area irrigated from the 17 miles which lie in the Sangamner Sub-division, 2227 acres in 1881. Irrigation rates vary from 2s. to 16s. per acre. The area under actual cultivation in 1881–82 was 204,020 acres; cereals and millets occupied 197,190 acres, of which 157,823 acres were under spiked millet (Pennisetum typhoideum); pulses, 4764 acres; oil-seeds, 662 acres; fibres, 11 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1393 acres. The manufactures are cotton and silk cloth, turbans, woollen blankets, bangles, and saltpetre. Of the 2100 looms in the Sub-division, 2000 are in the town of Sangamner. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thána*), 1; regular police, 44 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 189. Land revenue, £7120.

Sangamner.—Chief town of the Sangamner Sub-division of

Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situated 49 miles north-west of Ahmadnagar city, in lat. 19° 34′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 16′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 8796. Hindus numbered 7079; Muhammadans, 1603; Jains, 104; Christians, 7; and 'others,' 3. Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional revenue and police offices, Sangamner has an Assistant Collector's bungalow, post-office, dispensary, and four schools; markets on Wednesdays and Saturdays. Municipality, established in 1860, had in 1883-84 an income of £705; incidence of taxation per head of population, 1s. 4d. Brisk trade; number of looms, 2000.

Sanganer.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána; situated on the bank of the Amán-i-Sháh river, 7 miles south-west of Jaipur city, and 3 miles from the Sanganer station on the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway. Its principal features of interest are temples and Jain edifices, one of which is said to be over a thousand years old. Celebrated for dyeing and printing of cotton stuffs.

Sangarh.—Northern *tahsíl* of Dera Gházi Khán District, Punjab; consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Suláimán mountains and the Indus. Area, 628 square miles; towns and villages, 136; houses, 8389. Population (1881) 51,779, namely, males 27,730, and females 24,049; average density of population, 82 persons per square mile. Muhammadans number 46,205; Hindus, 5452; and Sikhs, 122. Of the 136 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 102 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 20 from five hundred to a thousand; and 14 from one thousand to five thousand. There is no town of Sangarh, nor any place with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants. The *tahsíl* takes its name from a little mountain torrent, the Sangarh; and the head-quarters are at the village of Taunsa. Principal crops—wheat, *bájra*, *joár*, and cotton. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £4977. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and an honorary magistrate, who preside over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 28 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 38.

Sángarhi.—Town in Sakolí *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 58′ N., long. 80° E., 24 miles south-east of Bhandárá town, and 3 miles south of the Seoní Lake (*vide* SEONIBAND). Population (1881) 3172, namely, Hindus, 2637; Muhammadans, 178; Jains, 7; and non-Hindu aborigines, 350. Manufactures of cotton cloth, which is largely exported, and silk-spinning. Sángarhi derives its name from the ruined Afghán fort which commands it. The town stands on a gravelly soil, but is unhealthy, owing to the brackishness of the water-supply from most of the wells. Flourishing Government school.

Sanghi.—Town in Rohtak *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 1′ N., long. 76° 37′ E., about 9 miles from Rohtak town, and

1 mile from the right bank of the Rohtak branch of the Western Jumna Canal. Population (1881) 5194, namely, Hindus, 4621; Muhammadans, 545; Jains, 25; and 'others,' 3. Number of houses, 844. Rather an agricultural village than a town, with a school and post-office.

Sángli.—Native State in the Political Agency of the Southern Maráthá Country, Bombay Presidency; consisting of six separate divisions—a group of villages near the valley of the Kistna; a second group between the Kolhápur territory on the west and Jámkhándi State; a third group in Sholápur District, near the junction of the Mán and Bhíma rivers; a fourth in Dhárwár District; a fifth just north of the town of Belgáum; and the last to the south of the river Malprabha and to the north-east of Kittúr in Belgáum. The State contains a total area of 896 square miles, of which about 91 square miles are under forest. Population (1872) 223,663; (1881) 196,832, namely, males 98,037, and females 98,795, occupying 31,183 houses, in 5 towns and 235 villages. Hindus number 172,257; Muhammadans, 13,082; and 'others,' 11,493.

The portion of the State of Sángli watered by the Kistna is flat, and the soil particularly rich. The remaining divisions are plains surrounded by undulating lands, and occasionally intersected by ridges of hills. The prevailing soil is black. Irrigation is carried on from rivers, wells, and tanks. The climate is the same as that of the Deccan generally, the air being very dry, especially when east winds prevail. The most common diseases are cholera, small-pox, and fever. The chief products are millet, rice, wheat, gram, and cotton; and the manufactures coarse cotton cloth, and native articles of apparel.

The chief of Sángli is a member of the Patwardhan family, whose founder Haribhat, a Konkan Bráhman, rose to military command under the first Peshwá, and received grants of land on condition of military service. In 1772, Miraj descended to Chintáman Ráo, grandson of Govind Ráo Hari, the original grantee. Chintáman Ráo being a child of six years, the State was managed during his minority by his uncle, Gangádhar Ráo. When the minor came of age, he quarrelled with his uncle, who attempted to keep him out of his rights. Eventually the estate was divided between them, the uncle retaining Miraj, and Chintáman Ráo taking Sángli. The revenue of Sángli was £63,518, and of Miraj, £47,980; the estates being respectively subject to a service of 1920 and 1219 horse. Chintáman Ráo, the father of the present chief of Sángli, became a feudatory of the British Government on the downfall of the Peshwá in 1818–19. In 1846, the East India Company presented him with a sword in testimony of their respect for his high character, and in acknowledgment of his fidelity and attachment to the British Government. Chintáman Ráo died in 1851. The

chief of Sángli does not now pay any contribution on account of military service, having ceded lands of the annual value of £13,500 in lieu thereof. The family hold a title authorizing adoption.

The present chief is Dhundi Ráo Chintáman, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste. He ranks as a 'first-class' Sardár in the Southern Maráthá Country, and has power to try capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. This power, however, applies to his own subjects only. In consequence of misgovernment by the chief, an English officer was in 1873 appointed as Joint Administrator. The share of the chief in the administration consists in signing such papers as are placed before him. Every improvement has proceeded from the Joint Administrator. The chief enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £98,135, and maintains a police force of 473 men; of these, 43 are mounted, 24 are employed in the State band, and 110 are armed. There were in 1883–84, 60 schools, of which 4 were girls' schools and 4 Anglo-vernacular; number of pupils, 3611. Indigenous schools numbered 36. There are in the State 5 municipalities; the largest has an income of £1238, and the smallest of £117. In the eight jails of the State, 732 persons were confined in 1883–84.

Sángli.—Chief town of Sángli State, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 16° 51′ 35″ N., and long. 74° 36′ 20″ E., on the river Kistna, a little north of the confluence of the Wárna, and north-east of Kolhápur. Population (1872) 12,961; (1881) 13,272, namely, males 6755, and females 6517. Hindus numbered 10,786; Muhammadans, 1660; Jains, 820; and Christians, 6. The income of the municipality in 1883–84 was £1238. The fort, in which is the chief's palace and most of the public offices, was built about 80 years ago. Dispensary and ten schools, including one for girls.

Sangod.—Town in Kotah State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5006, namely, Hindus, 4261; Muhammadans, 582; and 'others,' 163.

Sángola.—Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-west corner of the District. Lat. 17° 8′ to 17° 40′ N., and long. 74° 59′ to 75° 32′ E. Area, 649 square miles. Population (1872) 62,960; (1881) 62,849, namely, males 31,797, and females 31,052, occupying 8196 houses, in 1 town and 75 villages. Hindus number 60,540; Muhammadans, 2197; and 'others,' 112. Sángola is a level plain with a few treeless hillocks fringing its southern border. It is mostly bare of trees. Villages are three or four miles apart. The chief river is the Mán, which drains the Sub-division from west to north-east for about 35 miles. Most of the soil is stony and barren; and much of it fit only for grazing. In 1882–83, including alienated lands, the total number of holdings was 5259, with an average area of about 54 acres. In 1881–82, the area under actual cultivation was 215,894 acres, of which 8019 were twice cropped. Cereals and millets

occupied 187,840 acres; pulses, 16,982; oil-seeds, 9801 acres; fibres, 5599 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 3691 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 37 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 115. Land revenue, £8454.

Sángola.—Chief town of the Sángola Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated 19 miles south-west of Pandharpur, in lat. 17° 26′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 14′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 4726, namely, Hindus, 4294; Muhammadans, 403; and Jains, 29. Besides the revenue and police officers of the Sub-division, Sángola has a post-office, two schools, and a fort. The fort, which is now occupied by the Sub-divisional offices, is said to have been built by a Bijápur king; and so prosperous was the town which grew up round it, that until it was plundered by Holkar's Patháns in 1802, it was locally called the Golden Sángola (*Sonyáche Sángola*). The town has never recovered the sack of 1802. Municipality, established in 1855, had an income in 1883–84 of £146; incidence of taxation per head of population, 7d.

Sangrámpur.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 28′ 38″ N., and long. 84° 44′ E., on the river Gandak. Population (1872) 6181. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Sangri.—One of the Simla Hill States, Punjab. Area, 16 square miles. Sangri is situated south of the river Sutlej (Satlaj), and formerly belonged to the Rájás of Kúlu, whose main possessions lay north of that river. Population (1881) 2593, all Hindus, residing in 435 houses; number of families, 550. When the Gúrkhas were expelled by the British in 1815, the estate was restored to the Rájá of Kúlu. His territories north of the Sutlej were, however, conquered by the Sikhs, and the Rájá took refuge in Sangri, where he died childless in 1841. On the country falling under British power after the first Sikh war, his nephew was recognised, in 1847, as chief of Sangri. The present (1884) Tika of Sangri is Hira Singh, a Rajput. Estimated gross revenue, £100. The chief products are opium and grain.

Sangu.—Sub-division of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, formed in March 1867. It comprises the tract of country between the rivers Sangu and Mátámuri, along the north-eastern frontier of Bengal. Owing to the manner in which the Census of 1881 was taken in this backward District, no separate details of population, etc. are available. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with a regular police force of 32 men, and a semi-military frontier police numbering 135.

Sangu.—River of Chittagong, Bengal; rises in the range of hills dividing Arakan from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, near the hill of Kudáng. After a circuitous course of about 125 miles, generally

northerly, over a rocky bed, it reaches Bandárban, from which town it takes a tortuous westerly direction through Chittagong District, and finally empties itself into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 22° 6′ N., and long. 91° 53′ E., about 10 miles south of the Karnaphulí. The Sangu is tidal as far as Bandárban; its bed here is sandy. Though shallow in ordinary times, during the rains this river becomes deep, dangerous, and rapid. In its upper reaches, the Sangu is called by the hillmen the Rigray Khyaung; midway, before entering the plains, it is known as the Sabák Khyaung. It is navigable by large cargo boats for a distance of 30 miles throughout the year. The principal tributary is the Dolu.

Sanivarsante.—*Kasba* or administrative head-quarters of Yelusavirashime *táluk*, in the territory of Coorg. Lies on the Merkára-Kodlipet road. Distance from Merkára, 38 miles. Population (1881) 390. The name of the village is derived from a weekly fair held on Saturday. Manufacture of coarse cloth.

Sanján.—Small village in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Believed to have been formerly a large town, and the place where the Pársís first landed in India. Known to the Portuguese, and long after their time, as 'St. John.'

Sanjeli.—Petty State of Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 33½ square miles; contains 12 villages. Population (1881) 3751. Estimated revenue, £700. No tribute is paid. The chief is named Thákur Partáb Sinhjí. The land is fertile, but the people are Bhíls and poor husbandmen.

Sankaridrúg (*Sanka-giri Durgam*).—Village in Trichengod *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 11° 28′ 52″ N., long. 77° 55′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 1302, dwelling in 280 houses. Sub-magistrate's court, railway station, Roman Catholic chapel, and telegraph office.

The village is situated at the foot of the Durgam or Drúg, a square mass of gneiss rising 1000 feet above the plain, and 2345 feet above sea-level, completely terraced with fortifications, while half-way up, like a pearl set in emeralds, a white mosque nestles amongst the rich foliage which still covers part of the hill. On the summit is a small plateau, with a good supply of water stored in the rock. Viewed from below, the hill is a source of interest to the geologist, from the very fine specimens of granite veins piercing the gneiss, which have been exposed in the course of ages.

The Drúg was a place of great strength, and was not attempted by Colonel Wood in 1768, when he captured all the surrounding forts. The fortifications on the summit show traces of European engineering.

Sankarkati.—Village in Khúlna District, Bengal. Noted for its

numerously attended fair held during the *Durgá-pújá*, *Dol*, and *Rath Játrá* festivals. Bi-weekly market.

Sankarnainárkoil.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 712 square miles. Population (1881) 181,064, namely, males 89,566, and females 91,498, occupying 37,817 houses, in 3 towns and 110 villages. Hindus number 172,633; Muhammadans, 2666; Christians, 5761; and 'others,' 4. The *táluk* lies at the foot of the *ghâts*, and contains both red and black soils. The red-soil country is broken into valleys and ridges by numerous small torrents and streams descending from the mountains. Its principal wealth lies in its irrigated lands. Rice, plantain-gardens, and betel-vines are the products grown under irrigation. One-fourth of the whole area is black cotton soil, being a portion of the great cotton plain which occupies the north and north-east portion of Tinnevelli District. The greater portion of the cotton soil of the *táluk* is poor. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 52 men. Land revenue, £26,464.

Sankarnainárkoil. — Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 10′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 34′ 35″ E., 10 miles east of the road from Madura to Travancore. Population (1881) 8212, dwelling in 1542 houses. Hindus number 7679; Muhammadans, 455; and Christians, 78. A large, well-built town, with fine temples and tanks; and the head-quarters of Sankarnainárkoil *táluk*. Post-office.

Sankarpur.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 38′ N., and long 79° 34′ E., 16 miles north-north-east of Chimár. Population (1881) 1758. Government school. Under the Maráthás, a cannon foundry was worked in Sankarpur, and some half-finished guns yet remain.

Sankeswar (more correctly *Shankheswar* or 'the *Shankh* god').—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 16° 15′ N., and long. 74° 31′ 30″ E., 27 miles north by west of Belgáum town. Population (1881) 8109. Sankeswar has a large traffic carried on by about 50 traders, who export cotton and import dry cocoa-nuts, dates, spices, and curry stuff. The ordinary industry is the weaving of waist-cloths, women's robes, and blankets. Post-office, three schools, two of them private, an old temple, and a monastery.

Sankh.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in the west of Lohárdagá District, and after a tortuous course of 120 miles, first south-westerly and then south-easterly, joins the South Koel in Gangpur State. The united stream, under the name of the Bráhmaní, enters the sea in the north of Orissa. The confluence of the South Koel and the Sankh is the most picturesque spot in Gangpur. Local tradition

asserts it to be the scene of the amour of the Sage Parásurama with the fisherman's daughter Matsya Gandhá, the offspring of which was Vyása, the reputed compiler of the *Veda* and the *Mahábhárata*.

Sankhá. — Village in Gházípur *tahsíl*, Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 47′ N., long. 80° 44′ 34″ E., 4 miles from Gházípur town. Population (1881) 2262, chiefly Rájputs. Bi-weekly market. Annual fair in September, lasting two days.

Sankhatra. — Town and municipality in Zaffarwál *tahsíl*, Siálkot (Sealkote) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 13′ N., long. 74° 58′ E.; about 30 miles from Siálkot town. Population (1881) 2381, namely, Muhammadans, 1242; Hindus, 1030; Jains, 82; and Sikhs, 27. Number of houses, 305. Municipal income (1883–84), £125, or an average of 1s. 1d. per head. Trade in sugar, the produce of neighbouring villages. School and post-office.

Sankheda. — Town in Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. — *See* SAKHERA.

Sankheda Mewás.—Group of native estates in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SINDKHER MEWAS.

Sánkhund.—Spring in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; so called from the monster *sankh* or shell Panchajanya, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, the sound of which filled the breasts of the enemy with dismay. This shell is said to have rested beneath the waters of the spring, and its impression on the bank—three feet in length by a foot and a half wide —is still shown.

Sankisa.—Village and ruins in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; identified by General Cunningham with the great city of the same name, which formed the capital of a considerable kingdom in the 5th century A.D. Situated on the Kálí-nadi river, 23 miles west of Fatehgarh town. Visited by Fa-Hian about 415 A.D., and by Hiuen Tsiang in 636 A.D., when it was a celebrated place of Buddhist pilgrimage, as being the reputed spot where Buddha, accompanied by Indra and Brahma, descended again upon earth by three staircases of gold, silver, and crystal or precious stones, after a residence of three months in the Triyastrinshas' heaven, spent in preaching the law to his mother, Máya. The three staircases are believed to have sunk underground immediately after the descent, leaving only seven steps visible. King Asoka afterwards erected a pillar to commemorate the event, but no remains of it can now with certainty be discovered. Hiuen Tsiang mentions that the site and the memorial pillar were, in his time, enclosed within the walls of a great monastery.

The existing village is perched upon a mound of ruins, known as the *kilá* or fort, 41 feet in height, with a superficial extent of 1500 feet by 1000. A quarter of a mile southward is another mound, composed of solid brickwork, and surmounted by a temple to Bisári Devi. North

of the temple mound, at a distance of 400 feet, lies the capital of an ancient pillar, bearing an erect figure of an elephant, wanting the trunk and tail. The capital is described by General Cunningham as being of the well-known bell-shape, reeded perpendicularly with a honeysuckle abacus, as in the pillar at Allahábád; and it evidently belongs to the same period, the 3rd century B.C. Hence General Cunningham considers it identical with Asoka's monument, mentioned by the Chinese Pilgrims, although the latter was said to be crowned by the figure of a lion—a discrepancy which the learned archæologist explains away by supposing that the trunk was already broken off in the 5th century A.D., and that the animal could no longer be distinguished at a height of 50 feet above the ground.

South of the temple of Bisári Devi, again, at a distance of 200 feet, occurs a third small mound of ruins, apparently the remains of a *stupa;* while 600 feet due east is a fourth mound, 600 feet by 500, known as Nivi-ka-kot, which seems to contain the remains of some large enclosed building like a Buddhist monastery. The fort and the various mounds which surround the temple form a mass of ruins 3000 feet in length by 2000 in breadth, or nearly 2 miles in circuit; but this space appears only to enclose the citadel and the religious edifices which gathered round the three holy staircases by which Buddha descended upon the earth. The city itself, which surrounded the central holy enclosure, was girt by an earthen rampart upwards of 3½ miles in circumference, and still distinctly traceable in the shape of an irregular dodecagon. Three openings which occur in the rampart are traditionally pointed out as the gates of the ancient city. South-east of the Sankisa ruins lies the tank of the Nága, known as Karewar, and identified with a 'dragon tank' described by Fa-Hian. The city was probably destroyed during the wars between Prithwi Ráj of Delhi and Jai Chand of Kanauj. Other interesting ruins occur in the neighbouring village of SARAI-AGHAT, ¾ mile distant north-west.

Sankos (or *Suvarnakos;* so called from its golden sands).—River of North-Eastern Bengal, flowing through the low tract of country between the Himálayas and the Brahmaputra, where no river preserves its identity amid the frequent fluvial changes that take place year by year. It can only be affirmed that the name is given, in different parts of its course, to a river that flows southward from the Bhután Hills, and ultimately joins the Brahmaputra, in lat. 25° 52′ N., and long. 89° 52′ E. The main channel of this river forms the boundary between the Eastern and Western Dwárs, thus separating Bengal from Assam. Its chief tributaries are the Káljání and Ráidhak on the right bank, and the Gadádhar on the left. The name of the GADADHAR is commonly applied to the united stream.

Sánkshi (*Sakse*).—Customs division in Kolába District, Bombay

Presidency. Under Sánkshi are two ports—Antora, the port of Pen on the Pen creek, and Nágothna at the head of the Rewas creek or Amba river. Average annual value of sea-borne trade for the five years ending 1883-84—imports, £42,690; exports, £87,172; total, £129,862. In 1883-84 the trade amounted to—imports, £42,041; exports, £87,498; total, £129,539.

Sánkshi (also known as *Badr-ud-din* or *Dargahcha Kila*, from a tomb or *dargah* of the saint Badr-ud-din at its foot).—Fort in the Pen Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay Presidency; situated on a hill about five miles north-east of Pen town. The scene of repeated struggles between the Gujarát and Ahmadnagar princes and the Portuguese, passing into the possession of either power more than once. In 1827, Sánkshi was the scene of an encounter between a detachment of the 4th Rifles and a band of fanatical *dakáits*, in which three European soldiers were killed. The place was the head-quarters of a Sub-division until 1866, when they were removed to Pen.

Sann.—Town in the Mánjhand *táluk* of Sehwán Sub-division, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 26° N., and long. 68° 8′ E., close to the western bank of the Indus, at the mouth of a torrent that issues from the Laki Hills; on the main road from Kotri to Sehwán, being 11 miles north of Mánjhand, and 11 south of Amri. Sann station, on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, is a little more than two miles from the town. To the south-west of Sann is the ruined fort of Rání-ka-kot, said to have been constructed by two of the Talpur Mírs early in the present century, at a cost of 12 *lákhs* of rupees (say £120,000). Originally the river flowed near the walls, but when its course changed, the fort was abandoned. Sann has no trade or manufactures of any consequence; but as it is situated on the trunk road, *káfilas* (caravans), with various commodities from Kandahár and Khelát, pass through it. Sann is the head-quarters of a *tappadár*; it also contains a post-office, school, *dharmsála*, and a small police post. Population (1872) 1798, namely, 1362 Muhammadans and 436 Hindus; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Sanosra.—Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 3 villages, with 1 shareholder or tribute-payer. Area, 13 square miles. Population (1881) 1140. Estimated revenue, £403, of which £18, 12s. is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £5, 0s. 2d. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sansar Dhára.—Grotto and place of pilgrimage in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 21′ N., long. 78° 6′ E. A waterfall gushes from a cleft in the rock, with a grotto behind it, in which stalactites are formed. The Hindus consider it sacred to Mahádeva, and visit it in considerable numbers. Distant from Mussooree (Masúri) about 12 miles.

Santál Parganás, The.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 48′ and 25° 19′ N. lat., and between 86° 30′ and 87° 58′ E. long. Area, 5456 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,568,093 souls. The Santál Parganás form the southern portion of the Bhágalpur Division. They are bounded on the north by the Districts of Bhágalpur and Purniah; on the east by Maldah, Murshidábád, and Bírbhúm; on the south by Bardwán and Mánbhúm; and on the west by Hazáribágh, Monghyr, and Bhágalpur. The administrative head-quarters are at DUMKA.

Physical Aspects.—Three distinct types of country are represented in the Santál Parganás. In the east of the District, a belt of hills stretches with a semicircular curve for about a hundred miles from the Ganges to the Núnbil river. West of this is a rolling tract of long ridges with intervening depressions, covering an area of about 2500 square miles. The third type is exemplified by a narrow, almost continuous, strip of alluvial land about 170 miles in length, lying for the most part along the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. The total area of this alluvial tract is about 650 square miles. The undulating upland tract, which includes the Sub-divisions of Deogarh and Jamtára and the southern portion of Goddá, is in many parts overgrown with jungle; and the gneiss, which forms the geological basis of the District generally, is here overlaid by the carboniferous shales and sandstones that form the Deogarh coal-field.

The RAJMAHAL HILLS, which abruptly rise from the valley of the Ganges, were, until very recently, regarded as a continuation of the Vindhyan range of Central India. It has been found, however, that not only are they physically quite detached from the Vindhyan hill system, but geologically there is nothing in common between the two. The Rájmahál Hills occupy an area of about 2000 square miles, of which 1366 square miles are in the Government estate of the Dáman-i-koh; they nowhere rise higher than 2000 feet above the sea, their average elevation being considerably less. Among the highest ridges are Morí and Sendgarsa, each about 2000 feet above the sea. The principal ranges of the Rájmahál Hills outside the Dáman-i-koh are the Núni, Sankara, Rámgarh, Kulanga, Sarbor, Sundardihi, Lakshmanpúr, and Sabchala. Singanmát, a peak in the Sankara range, is well known as a landmark for all the country round. Most of these hills are covered almost to their summits with dense jungle, and are difficult of access. There are, however, numerous passes through the successive ranges, over which good roads might without difficulty be made.

The Ganges forms the northern and a large part of the eastern boundary of the Santál Parganás, and all the rivers of the District eventually flow either into it or into the Bhágírathí. The chief of these rivers are the Gumání, the Moral, the Bánsloi, the Bráhmaní, the Mor or

Morákhi with its tributary the Naubil, the Ajai, and the Barákhar. None of them is navigable throughout the year.

Forests. — Although the face of the country is to a large extent covered with jungle, there are no forests in the Santál Parganás which contain timber of much commercial value. Government obtains a small revenue by leasing out the right to cut timber for firewood in the Dáman-i-koh; and trifling amounts are realized by the landholders in the form of royalties on every axe employed in cutting wood. The characteristic tree of the jungles of the District is the *sál*, large numbers of which are floated down the Mor during the rains, while still more are exported during the dry season on *sagars* or block-wheeled carts.

Jungle Products. — The principal jungle products of the Santál Parganás are the following:—Lac, found on the *palás*, *ber*, and *pípal* trees, and exported in small quantities from the Mahárájpur station, but not locally manufactured. *Tasar* silk cocoons are gathered in large quantities by the Santáls and Pahláriás. *Dhuná* or resin is obtained by girdling the *sál* tree. Beeswax, catechu, honey, *sábui* grass, *kónjú*, and *jombár*, two creepers used for making rope, and also a variety of edible products, are collected in the jungles. The use of jungle products as a means of subsistence is confined, for the most part, to Pahláriás, Santáls, and Bhuiyás. Patches of grazing ground are to be found in all the hills and jungles, but cattle are not brought from other Districts for grazing.

Minerals. — Coal and iron are found in almost all parts of the Santál Parganás. The various attempts that have been made to work coal-mines, and to quarry building-stone in the District, are noticed in a subsequent paragraph. In 1850, some copper and silver ores were dug up by Captain Sherwill in the Sub-District of Deoghar. Fourteen pounds of silver ore were treated in Calcutta by Mr. H. Piddington, Curator of the Museum of Economic Geology, and yielded 154 grains of pure silver, showing it to be 'far above an average ore.' The copper ore was found to be very poor. Picturesque waterfalls are formed near the villages of Kuskirá, Sinhpur, and Mahárájpur, and there are several mineral springs in the District.

Feræ Naturæ. — Tigers, leopards, bears, hyænas, deer, and wild hog, with a variety of small game, are common almost everywhere. Elephants and rhinoceros used to be seen, but have now almost died out. Wild ducks, pigeons, geese, snipe, partridges, and quail abound in the marshes of the alluvial part of the District.

History.—The administrative history of the Santál Parganás is the history of the gradual withdrawal of the territory now comprised in the District from the operation of the general Regulations; that withdrawal being throughout dictated by a regard for the peculiar national

character of the two races of Pahárıás and Santáls. The policy was in the first instance set on foot by Mr. Augustus Cleveland, Collector of Bhágalpur, in the rules which he proposed for the management of the Pahárıás between 1780 and 1784. These rules, which are referred to in the article on BHAGALPUR DISTRICT, were incorporated in Regulation I. of 1796, so that Cleveland has a fair claim to be considered the author of the Non-Regulation system. It followed, however, from confirming the Pahárıás in possession of the hills, that disputes arose between them and the Hindu *zamíndárs* of the plains as to the right of grazing cattle and cutting timber along the lower slopes. That the hills had really or nominally belonged to the *zamíndárs*, there can be no doubt; but the troubles following the British accession, and shortly afterwards the great famine of 1769–70, had weakened or destroyed their control. Cleveland practically assumed possession of the hills on behalf of Government; they were excluded from the Permanent Settlement in 1793; and finally in 1823, the Government by Resolution declared its proprietary right in the hills, and ordered that the tract covered by this declaration should be demarcated. Accordingly, in 1825, two Government officials were deputed to demarcate with solid masonry pillars the present area of the Dáman-i-koh or 'skirts of the hills,' a work which was not completed till 1833. The great central valley still remained the property of the *zamíndár* of *parganá* Bhágalpur till 1839, when it too was resumed. The permission to Santáls to settle in the valleys and on the lower slopes of the Dáman-i-koh stimulated Santál immigration to an enormous extent; and it might be supposed that the natural consequence of that immigration would have been the admission of the Santáls to the exceptional privileges which the Pahárıás already enjoyed. But this measure, although more than once proposed, was not approved by Government; and the next phase in the history of the District is the Santál rebellion of 1855–56.

The story of that rebellion, and the causes which led to it, would occupy more space than can here be given; but the reader will find an exhaustive account of it in Hunter's *Annals of Rural Bengal*, and a shorter sketch under article INDIA (*ante*, Vol. VI.). The Santáls, starting with the desire to revenge themselves on the Hindu money-lenders who had taken advantage of their simplicity and improvidence, found themselves arrayed in arms against the British Government. The insurrection was not repressed without bloodshed, but it led to the establishment of a form of administration congenial to the Santál immigrants; and a land settlement has recently been carried out on conditions favourable to the occupants of the soil.

Population.—No estimate of the population of the entire District exists previous to the Census of 1872. That enumeration disclosed a total of 1,259,287 persons; while the last Census in 1881 returned

a total of 1,586,093, or an apparent increase of 308,806, or 24·52 per cent., in 9 years. This increase, however, is to a very large extent only nominal, and is mainly attributable to the much greater accuracy of the enumeration in 1881. The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows: — Area of District, 5456 square miles; towns 4, and villages 11,250; number of houses, 252,486, namely, 246,746 occupied, and 5740 unoccupied. Total population, 1,568,093, namely, males 785,330, and females 782,763. Average density of population, 287·4 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, 2·06; persons per town or village, 139; houses per square mile, 46·28; persons per occupied house, 6·36. Classified according to sex and age, there were—under 15 years of age, boys 368,939, and girls 358,530; total children, 727,469, or 46·4 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, men 416,391, and women 424,233; total adults, 840,624, or 53·6 per cent. The abnormally large proportion of children is due to the fact that the aboriginal Santáls are one of the most prolific races in Bengal.

Religion. — Classified according to religion, the Census of 1881 returned the population as follows:—Hindus, 847,590, or 53·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 108,899, or 6·8 per cent.; Christians, 3057; Buddhists, 132; Sikhs, 54; Jains, 2; Jews, 6; and tribes professing aboriginal religions, 608,353, or 38·4 per cent., of whom 559,602 were Santáls and 11,995 Kols, the remainder being made up of other tribes.

Among the higher Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 36,075; Rájputs, 28,124; Bábhans or cultivating Bráhmans, 5406; Káyasths, 7820; and Baniyás, 28,124. The lower or Súdra castes of Hindus include the following:—Ghátwál, not properly a caste, although returned as such in the Census Report, but a branch of the aboriginal race of Bhuiyás. They, however, take the name of Ghátwál as a caste designation to denote their occupation as guardians of the hill passes. They keep fowls and pigs; but the well-to-do members of the tribe claim to be Kshattriyas. The number of Ghátwáls returned as such in the Census Report of 1881 was 38,032. Goálá, the most numerous caste in the District, 88,544; Dom, 35,723; Chamár, 33,546; Lohár, 26,433; Telí, 24,986; Nápit, 21,714; Kumbhár, 21,484; Mál, 20,533; Sunrí, 19,059; Musahár, 18,588; Baurí, 18,515; Kahárs, 16,608; Koerí, 13,589; Madak, 13,462; Kurmí, 13,177; Dhanuk, 12,162; Kalu, 10,929; Dosádh, 10,801; Kaibarttá, 10,749; Hari, 8894; Tántí, 8864; Dhobí, 8052; Rájwar, 6215; Barhái, 5841; Bágdi, 5104; Kalwár, 4673; Sonár, 4156; Málí, 3807; Tambulí, 3186; Mallah, 2799; Kandu, 2772; Chásá, 2626; Sadgop, 2471; Pásí, 2420; Tatwá, 2401; Tior, 2381; and Baruí, 2218. Caste-rejecting Hindus were returned at 8193, of whom 6346 were Vaishnavs.

The Muhammadans in 1881 numbered 108,899, or 6·33 per cent. of the population, classified according to sect into—Sunnis, 96,736; Shiás, 2607; and unspecified, 9556. The Musalmán population of Deogarh Sub-division is said to have been introduced early in the 18th century by the Muhammadan Rájá of Nagar in Bírbhúm District, of whose *zamíndárí* or principality it formed a part. In Dumká Sub-division, the Muhammadans mostly belong to the low weaving castes, whose adherence to the religion of Islám is little more than nominal. A few Wahábí revivalists are found in Rájmahál Sub-division, where the landholders are Muhammadans, and memories of Musalmán domination still survive. Taking the Santál Parganás as a whole, the Muhammadans do not hold a high social position, and are a far less wealthy and less influential body than the Hindus.

Of the aboriginal population, 608,353 are returned as still professing their primitive faiths. Of these, 559,602 are returned as Santáls, 11,995 as Kols, and 36,756 as belonging to other aboriginal tribes. Besides these, the Census returns show 108,355 aborigines among Hindus, consisting of—Bhuiyás, 61,640; Santáls, 9148; Bhumijs, 3880; Khárwárs, 2862; Kols, 2094; Gonds, 571; and other tribes, 28,160. The Paháriás are not returned separately in the Census of 1881, and are probably included with the general body of Santáls. Total Hindu and non-Hindu aboriginal population, 716,708. This, however, does not include aborigines converted to the faith of Islám or to Christianity; and the list of Hindu castes includes several undoubted aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes; *e.g.* the Ghátwáls, Baurís, Binds, etc. An account of the Santáls forms the subject of the following article in this volume.

The Christian population of the Santál Parganás amounted at the time of the Census of 1881 to 3057 souls, namely, Europeans, Americans, and Africans, 182; Eurasians, 108; natives of India, 2718; and 'others,' 49. Nearly all the converts belong to the aboriginal races who are engaged in agriculture; and Christianity has produced little effect upon the general Hindu population, or on the more civilised inhabitants of the towns. The Church Missionary Society has stations in the District at Hiránpur, Táljhari, Godda, Bhagaiá, and Baháwa; as also has the Santál Home Mission, with its head-quarters at Dumká. A private mission carries on work in Jamtárá. Within the past few years, attempts have been made, through the Rev. L. O. Skrefsrud, the head of the Santál Home Mission, to improve the condition of the converts by establishing Christian colonies of Santál agriculturists in Assam, where unlimited spare land is available. Between 1880 and 1885, nine such villages, with a total population of between 600 and 700 men, women, and children, had been settled in the Gumá *dwár* tract of Goálpárá District. The Rev. H. P. Boerrensen, in charge of

the Settlement, reported in September 1885, that the colony had successfully passed the initial stage of experiment; that a considerable area of land had been reclaimed from jungle and brought under cultivation; that, free from the pressure of Bengalí landlords and usurers, and with a splendid soil yielding rich crops, the colonists, with three or four individual exceptions, had all become well-to-do, and many of them rich according to Santál ideas. The whole of the debt due to Government, incurred in the shape of advances made to start the undertaking, has been paid off by the settlers.

Ethnical Division of the People.—The distribution of the races in the Santál Parganás is traceable rather to the controlling action of Government, than to the geographical position or physical conformation of the District. The colony of Pahárias which occupies the Rájmahál hills is like an advanced outpost, cut off from the main body of the aboriginal races farther west by the great Aryan line of communication between Bengal and Behar. Although the crests of the ranges are barren enough to deter any other race from contesting their possession with the Pahárias, yet there is little doubt that but for the ring fence erected by Government between 1825 and 1833, all the lands of the lower levels would have been occupied by Bengalí or Hindustání immigrants. Since the enclosure of the Dáman-i-koh, however, a continual stream of Santál immigrants has been pouring into the District from Hazáribágh and Mánbhúm, and occupying the valleys and lower slopes of the hills which the Pahárias do not cultivate. The remaining inhabitants of the District are either Bengalí immigrants from the south-east, or Hindustánís from the north-west; but the Census returns afford no means of estimating the relative strength of the two nationalities in the Santál Parganás. With reference to the three tracts of hilly, undulating, and alluvial country into which the District is divided, it may be laid down with approximate correctness that the hilly country is inhabited mainly by Santáls, Pahárias, and other aboriginal tribes; the undulating region by semi-aboriginal races, with a smaller proportion of aborigines and a fair sprinkling of Aryan settlers; and the alluvial strip of country almost entirely by Aryans.

Town and Rural Population.—The population is almost entirely rural, and the only places with upwards of five thousand inhabitants are DEOGARH, population (1881) 8005; and SAHIBGANJ, the great commercial mart on the Ganges, population 6512. The only other places with any pretensions to be called towns are DUMKA, the administrative head-quarters of the District, 2075; and RAJMAHAL, 3839. Of the 11,250 villages, as many as 8998 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1881 between two hundred and five hundred; 335 between five hundred and a thousand; 33 between one thousand and two thousand; and 3 between two thousand and three thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census Report returns the male population under the following six classes :—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 7134; (2) domestic class, 14,625; (3) commercial class, including traders and carriers, 15,323; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 325,718; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 27,593; and (6) indefinite and unspecified class, comprising general labourers and male children, 394,937.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple food-grain of the District. *Járán* or *áman* rice, the winter crop of the year, is of two kinds—*báo*, which is sown broadcast; and *ropá dhán*, which is transplanted; of these, forty varieties are named. In the alluvial strip of country which runs along the eastern boundary of the District, rice is largely cultivated; and the lower slopes of the ridges in the undulating tract, as well as the swampy ground between those ridges, are also sown with rice. Level terraces are cut out of the hillsides, which thus present the appearance of a series of steps varying from one to five feet in height. These rice terraces are flooded as soon as possible after the rains set in, small banks being left round the edge of each plot to hold the water. Among the other crops of the District are millets, wheat, barley, maize, various pulses and oil-seeds, jute, flax, sugar-cane (of which four varieties are distinguished), cotton, and indigo. There are two seasons for sowing indigo: the spring sowings are put into the ground in March, and reaped in June; and the autumn or October sowings are also cut in the following June.

No accurate statistics are available showing the area under different crops; and it is evident from what has been said regarding the physical aspects of the District, and the mode of rice cultivation in the undulating tract, that there would be considerable difficulty in estimating the aggregate area under rice. The food crops grown in the District are, (1) rice, (2) *janirá* or maize, and (3) other grains, such as millet and pulses. Of this food supply locally produced, rice forms eleven-sixteenths; *janirá* three-sixteenths. There are large stretches of spare land all over the District, and cultivation is being gradually extended to them.

No scientific system of rotation has as yet been developed, but a sort of rotation is followed on high lands only recently brought under cultivation, which are sown for three successive years with oil-seeds or pulses. On homestead lands around the cultivator's house, which can be thoroughly manured, it is a common practice to alternate Indian corn with mustard. Manure, consisting of cow-dung, wood-ashes, and mud from the bottom of tanks, is commonly used for sugar-cane, and for such high land crops as Indian corn, tobacco, and mustard, when they are in the neighbourhood of the house, and can conveniently be

attended to. Rice is not manured at all. Irrigation is effected for the most part by *bándhs* or small embankments thrown across the upper and narrower ends of the trough-like hollows which make up the surface of the country. Each embankment thus holds up the natural drainage and forms a small reservoir at a high level. Land below the *bándh* growing a rice crop can be irrigated by leading the water round the edges of the embankment, or by cutting the embankment itself; while the wheat, barley, sugar-cane, and poppy crops of the adjacent high lands can be watered by a lift. Wells are not used for irrigation.

There is no tendency towards the formation of a distinct landless labouring class. Such a class formerly existed in the *kamiás* or bondsmen, the nature of whose servitude is described in the article on Hazáribágh District (vol. v. pp. 376, 377). This system, however, was put an end to in the Santál Parganás by the late Sir George Yule, when Commissioner of the Bhágalpur Division, who ordered the cancellation of all *kamiá* bonds, and sent the *kamiás* to work upon the railway then under construction. The agricultural day-labourers, while finding their regular employment in working for others, are not, as a class, absolutely landless, and generally have small patches of cultivation of their own. Of such labourers there are two kinds, known as *krisháns* and *bhagiár*. The *krishán* either uses his own agricultural implements and takes one-half of the produce, or uses his employer's implements and gets only one-third. In any case, the employer pays the rent and provides the seed. The *bhagiár* works on less advantageous terms, as he not only contributes his personal labour and the use of his own agricultural implements, but also finds the seed, and only receives one-half of the produce.

In consequence of the enhanced demand for labour on the railway and public works, wages have risen materially of late years. Prices of food-grains and of all agricultural produce have also risen. Common rice in 1883-84 sold at the rate of 19⅝ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 9d. per cwt.; and wheat at 14½ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 9d. per cwt. These prices are rather above the average, owing to the year being one of deficient rainfall.

Natural Calamities.—Blight of a serious kind is not known in the Santál Parganás. Owing to the completeness of the natural drainage, floods are almost impossible over a large area; on the rare occasions on which the crops in the alluvial tract have been injured by flood, the loss thus caused was more than compensated by the increased yield of the high lands. Drought caused considerable distress in the Santál Parganás in 1866, and again in 1874. In the former year the price of rice rose in July to 7½ *sers*, and in August to 6½ *sers* for the rupee; in the latter year the highest price was 10 *sers*. The fact of rice rising to 10 or 14 *sers*, or paddy to 20 or 25 *sers*,

would indicate the approach of famine, and relief measures would become necessary. It has been remarked that abundant crops of wild fruit are usually concomitants of famine years; and this was the case both in 1866 and in 1874. The *mahuá* tree, which is very common in the Santál highlands, yielded in 1874 a bounteous crop of edible blossoms and seeds; and the mango was also plentiful, and formed a sensible addition to the food supply of the people, who live much on wild fruits and herbs. In 1866, the people in this District, as in other parts of Behar, were forced by want to eat the mangoes while still unripe, and thousands of deaths by cholera were the result. In 1874, relief was afforded on such a scale that the fruit was allowed to ripen before being plucked, and there was no outbreak of disease.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is carried on by means of permanent markets. The chief exports are rice, Indian corn, oil-seeds, *tasar*-silk cocoons, lac, small-sized timber, hill bamboos, and stone. The imports include European piece-goods, salt, and brass or bell-metal utensils for household use. The principal mart, both for railway and river trade, is SAHIBGANJ, on the Ganges. This place is most favourably situated on the deep channel of the river, which flows at all seasons close under the town; and the railway station is quite near. RAJMAHAL, on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway, is another important mart. Both Sáhibganj and Rájmahál mainly depend upon their through traffic. They are, in fact, depôts, where the agricultural produce of the trans-Gangetic Districts of Maldah, Purniah, and Bhágalpur is collected for transmission by rail to Calcutta. The manufactures of the District are insignificant. Iron is roughly smelted; coarse cloth is woven, silk-spinning is carried on, a few bell-metal utensils are made, and indigo is manufactured on a small scale. There are altogether about 500 miles of road in the Santál Parganás; and the District is traversed on the east by the loop-line, and on the west by the chord-line of the East Indian Railway—the total length of both lines, including a portion of the small branch connecting Madhupur with the Karharbári collieries, being about 130 miles. Coal is found in the District, but of such inferior quality that all attempts made to work it have failed. Stone is quarried by an English firm under leases from Government and the *zamíndárs*, and exported down the Ganges to Calcutta for use as road-metal.

Administration.—In 1860–61, the total revenue of the Santál Parganás amounted to £22,680, and the expenditure to £16,845. In 1870–71 the revenue was £38,901, and the expenditure £14,391. In 1883–84 the five main items of Government revenue aggregated £45,437, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £22,556; excise, £11,758; stamps, £9662; registration, £740; municipal taxes, £721. Cost of civil administration, £16,438. Number of criminal

civil, and revenue courts in 1870, 10; in 1883, 17. The Deputy Commissioner is also the District Judge.

The police of the Santál Parganás was organized in 1856 under what was called the 'no police' system, according to which the village officials alone perform police duties. The regular police system was, however, partially introduced in 1863-64; and in 1881 extended to the rest of the District, except the Dáman-i-koh, and Dumká and Jamtárá Sub-divisions, where the village system still exists unimpaired. The reserve police force of Western Bengal, 100 strong, is now stationed at Dumká, which has also become the training ground for the police of the western part of the Province, the police of other Districts being sent there to be drilled in batches of 10 men from 10 Districts at a time. In 1883 the regular and municipal police force numbered 392 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6724. The rural police or village watch, including the Ghátwáls and Paháriás, numbered 3891, maintained at an estimated cost in money or rent-free service lands of £4868. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 4283 men of all ranks, giving 1 man to every 1·27 square miles of area or to every 336 of the population. The total estimated cost was £11,592, equal to an average of £2, 2s. 6d. per square mile and 1¾d. per head of population. In 1883 the police conducted 3062 cases of all kinds, the proportion of convictions to persons brought to trial being 40·6 per cent.

Dákáití or gang-robbery is very uncommon, the explanation being that the people of the District are so poor that there is no inducement to this particular crime. There was 1 jail and 1 lock-up in the Santál Parganás in 1883. The average daily jail population in the Dumká and Godda jails was 20 prisoners.

Education has made rapid strides in the Santál Parganás during the last few years. In 1864, there was not a single Government school in the District; in 1870-71, there were only 47; and in 1871-72, 42 Government and aided schools, attended by 1169 pupils. In 1872-73, owing to the admission of village *pathsálas* to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules, the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 101, with 2206 pupils. In 1883, when Sir George Campbell's education reforms had received their full development, the number of primary schools in the Santál Parganás under inspection by the Education Department had increased to about 975, with about 17,000 pupils. Of these, 148 were under missionary management. The Census Report of 1881 returned only 8850 boys and 504 girls as under instruction; besides 17,310 males and 661 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

For administrative purposes, the Santál Parganás are divided into 6 Sub-divisions, namely, (1) Dumká, (2) Rájmahál, (3) Deogarh, (4)

Pákaur, (5) Jamtárá, and (6) Godda. There are 32 fiscal divisions (*parganás*) in the District. The gross municipal income of Deogarh and Sáhibganj (the only municipalities in the Santál Parganás) amounted in 1883 to £1216, of which £721 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. per head of the population (14,296) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Santál Parganás varies in the different tracts which have been referred to in describing the physical features of the District. The alluvial strip of land has the damp heat and moist soil characteristic of Bengal; while the undulating and hilly portions are swept by the hot westerly winds of Behar, and resemble in their rapid drainage and dry subsoil the lower plateau of Chutiá Nágpur. In this undulating tract the winter months are very cool, but the hot season is correspondingly trying. The average annual rainfall is 60·23 inches. Rainfall in 1883–84, 47·84 inches, or 12·39 inches below the average. No thermometrical returns are available. The prevailing endemic diseases of the District are fevers of the ordinary type, bowel complaints, and skin diseases. The hill tracts of Rájmahál are very malarious. Epidemics of cholera and small-pox break out from time to time, but have been for the most part confined to the town of Deogarh. There are 5 charitable dispensaries in the Santál Parganás, which afforded medical relief in 1883 to 7569 in-door and out-door patients. [For further information regarding the Santál Parganás, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. xiv. pp. 265 to 384 (Trübner, 1877); also the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of Bengal.]

Santáls, The.—An aboriginal Kolarian tribe, inhabiting a tract of country forming a strip of Bengal; about 350 miles in length, extending from the Ganges at Bhágalpur to the Baitaraní river in Orissa. The Imperial Census Report of 1881 does not return the number of Santáls to be found throughout India; but, with the exception of a small body of about 7000, who have emigrated to Assam as coolies on the tea estates, or as labourers, and a few isolated cases of individuals scattered elsewhere, the whole Santál population inhabits the strip of Bengal above cited. The Census Report of Bengal for 1881 returns the total Santál population of the Province, excluding Christian converts, or any who may have embraced the faith of Islám, at 1,087,202, comprising Hindus 203,264, and non-Hindus 883,938. A little more than one-half, namely, 546,694, or 50·3 per cent. (of whom only 9148 are Hindus), are found in the single District of the Santál Parganás, which, however, as explained below, and in the District article, is not the original home of the race, but that in which they have settled during the present century. The following table, compiled from the Bengal Census

Report of 1881, shows the distribution of the Santáls in the different Bengal Districts in 1881, classified into Hindus and non-Hindus :—

SANTALS IN BENGAL IN 1881.

DISTRICTS.	Non-Hindus.	Hindus.	TOTAL.
Santál Parganás,	537,546	9,148	546,694
Mánbhúm,	42,700	86,403	129,103
Midnapur,	112,062	565	112,627
Bánkurá,	84,559	20,034	104,593
Hazáribágh,	56,598	...	56,598
Singhbhúm,	648	51,954	52,602
Bírbhúm,	14,172	726	14,898
Bhágalpur,	13,384	42	13,426
Bardwán,	6,418	5,806	12,224
Monghyr,	6,938	...	6,938
Balasor,	4,206	339	4,545
Orissa Tributary States,	633	922	1,555
Other Bengal Districts,	4,074	27,325	31,399
Grand Total,	883,938	203,264	1,087,202

The following paragraphs, quoted in a slightly condensed form from Colonel E. T. Dalton's *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal*, describe generally the history of the Santáls, so far as ascertained, their physical appearance, habits, and mode of life :—

History.—'The Santál Parganás or Santália, said to contain upwards of 200,000 Santáls [546,694 in 1881], may now be regarded as the nucleus of the Santál race, though it does not appear to have been one of their original seats. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in describing the hill tribes of Bhágalpur and its vicinity, makes no mention of Santáls. The aboriginal tribes he fell in with are called "Malairs," the Rájmahál hill-men proper and their kindred, who are a Dravidian people. It is singular that no old colonies of Santáls or other Kolarian tribes are found between the Himálayas and the Ganges. The Santál Settlements that now border on that river or skirt the Rájmahál hills are readily traced back to more southern Districts; and their own traditions hardly support the theory of their northern origin. Indeed, when we find that the Kolarian races have left their trail in Assam; that it may be followed throughout the Siam States and Burma to the Pegu District, and is faintly discerned in the adjoining islands; that it may be taken up at Point Palmyras and clearly traced along both banks of the Dámodar river till it reaches the hills and table-land of Chutiá Nágpur, —it is scarcely reasonable to assume that they have all come direct from the Himálayas. The Dámodar, rising in Palámau, divides the Hazáribágh and Chutiá Nágpur plateaux, and draining the northern face of the one, and the southern face of the other, discharges itself

into the Húglí near the mouth of the latter river. It is the terrestrial object most venerated by the Santáls; and the country that is most closely associated with their name, which they apparently regard as their fatherland, is between that river and the Kasái. There is no doubt, however, that Santáls colonized parts of Hazáribágh District and of Bírbhúm at a very remote period, and it is chiefly by migrations from these colonies that the modern Santália has been formed.

'In 1832, a considerable impetus was given to the northward movement, in the action taken by Government to secure to the Rájmahál highlanders their possessions in the hills that form the turning-point of the Ganges at Sáhibganj. To prevent the encroachments of the lowland *zamíndárs* of Bhágalpur, which were constantly exciting reprisals from the highlanders, a tract of country measuring nearly 300 miles in circumference was separated and marked off by large masonry pillars. Of the land within these pillars the Government was declared to be direct proprietor, and the hill people were informed that their rights in it would be respected so long as they conducted themselves peaceably. But the hill-men only cared for the highlands; and the tract included within the pillars, called the Dáman-i-koh or skirts of the hills, and the valleys running into the hills, were available for other settlers, and were speedily taken up by Santáls. In a few years the Santál population had increased from 3000 to 83,000 souls, when the colony received a check by the Santál insurrection of 1854.

'For a history of this rebellion, and the causes that led to it, the reader may be referred to the *Annals of Rural Bengal.* The Santáls, starting with the desire to revenge themselves on the money-lenders who had taken advantage of their simplicity and improvidence, found themselves arrayed in arms against the British Government. It was not without bloodshed that the insurrection was suppressed; but it led to their being re-established under a more genial administration in what are now called the Santál Parganás. In the Dáman-i-koh, their own form of self-government is to some extent restored to them. The villages are farmed to the head-men, called *mánjhís*, who are also the sole guardians of the peace, a system that had been already introduced with success into the Kolhán of Singhbhúm.

Migratory Habits.—'In marked contrast to the Kolarians of the Munda and Ho Divisions, the Santáls, as a rule, care little for permanently locating themselves. A country denuded of the primeval forest which affords them the hunting-grounds they delight in and the virgin soil they prefer, does not attract them; and when, through their own labour, the spread of cultivation has affected this denudation, they select a new site, however prosperous they may have been on the old, and retire into the backwoods, where their harmonious flutes sound

sweeter, their drums find deeper echoes, and their bows and arrows may once more be utilized. The traditions of their ancient migrations are rendered obscure by the succession of dissolving views to which this nomadic habit introduces us, but they nevertheless tenaciously cling to a wild and remote tradition of their origin. Though much scattered and intermingled with other races whose creeds and customs they have partially adopted, they are still characterized by many old practices; and they are one of the tribes which has preserved the form of speech that in all probability predominated in the Gangetic Provinces before the Aryan conquest.

'But though prone to change, the Santáls are not indifferent to their personal comfort, and are more careful in the construction of their homesteads and villages than their cognates. Their huts, with carefully formed mud walls and well-raised plinths and snug verandahs, have a neat and, owing to their love of colour, even a gay appearance. They paint their walls in alternate broad stripes of red, white, and black,—native clays and charcoal furnishing the pigments; moreover, the houses are kept perfectly clean, and, by means of partitions, decent accommodation for the family is provided.

'For the sites of their villages they generally seek isolation, and would gladly, if they could, exclude all foreigners, especially Bráhmans. But as they clear lands that they do not care to retain and render habitable—regions that would otherwise be given up solely to wild beasts—they are soon followed into their retreat by the more crafty and enterprising Hindus; and the result often is they have to submit to or give way to the intruders. It frequently happens that the Hindu immigrant, improving on the Santál cultivation, and making more money by it, obtains from the landlord a lease of the village at a rent the Santál would not think of paying, and so the pioneers of civilisation are prematurely forced to move on.

Physiognomy.—'The Santáls, like the Khárwárs, belong to, or have mixed much with, the dark races of India. The Cheros, Hos, and Mundas are on the whole fairer, and possess more distinct traces of the Tartar type. The Santáls are noticeable for a great vagueness in the chiselling of the features, a general tendency to roundness of outline where sharpness is more conducive to beauty, a blubbery style of face, and both in male and female a greater tendency to corpulency than we meet in their cognates. Their faces are almost round; cheek-bones moderately prominent; nose of somewhat a retrousée style, but generally broad and depressed; mouth large, and lips very full and projecting; hair straight, and coarse, and black. Mr. Mann remarks of them, and I concur in the remark, that their cast of countenance almost approaches the Negro type. "The females," he says, "have small hands and feet, and are ox-eyed, and these are

characteristics which the tribes linguistically allied to them do not possess."

Tribal Divisions. — 'The Santáls, like the Israelites, are divided into twelve tribes:—(1) Sáran; (2) Murma; (3) Marlí; (4) Kisku; (5) Besera; (6) Handsa; (7) Túdi; (8) Baski; (9) Hemrow; (10) Karwár; (11) Chorai; (12) . . . . Except No. 11, the above agree with the nomenclature of tribal divisions of Santál tribes in Mr. Mann's work; numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, and 11 with the names of the seven sons of the first parents as given in the *Annals of Rural Bengal.* Numbers 2, 3, 6, 9, and 11 are found in the list of the tribes of the Singhbhúm Larka Kols or Hos. This is remarkable, as the legends of origin handed down among the Larkas have little in common with the traditions of the Santáls. Though the former also assign twelve sons to the first parents, these were the primogenitors, not of the various *kilis* or tribes of Hos, but of different families of mankind, including Hindus and Santáls, the latter being the offspring of the youngest pair, who, when told to separate from the family, selected pig as their staple food. The names given above include only one to which a meaning is attached, viz. Murma, which signifies the *nílgái* (Portax vel Antelope pictus); and the Murmas may not kill the animal whose name they adopt, nor touch its flesh.

Village Polity, Festivals, and Religion.—'The polity of the Santáls is very patriarchal. In each village there is (1) a *jag-mánjhí*, whose most important duty is apparently to look after the morals of the boys and girls; (2) a *parámánik*, whose business it is to attend to the farming arrangements, and to apportion the lands. He disallows any monopoly of peculiarly fertile rice lands; all must take their share of good and bad. He has to look after the interest of new settlers, and to provide for guests, levying contributions for that purpose on the villagers. All the offices are hereditary; when a new settlement is formed, the office-bearers are elected, after that the next of kin succeeds. (3) There is a village priest who is called *naiyá* (*nayaka*, vulgo *layá*). This is a word of Sanskrit derivation, and as the Santáls have no name in their own language for such an office, it is probably not an original institution. He has lands assigned to him; but out of the profits of his estate he has to feast the people twice in the year at the festival of the *Sarhúl,* held towards the end of March, when the *sál* tree blossoms, and at the *Moi Muri* festival, held in the month of Aswin (September–October), for a blessing on the crops. At the *Sohrai* feast, the harvest home, in December, the *jag-mánjhí* entertains the people, and the cattle are anointed with oil and daubed with vermilion, and a share of rice-beer (*hándia*) is given to each animal. Every third year in most houses, but in some every fourth or fifth year, the head of the family offers a goat

to the sun-god, Singh Bonga, for the prosperity of the family, especially of the children, "that they may not be cut off by disease, or fall into sin." The sacrifice is offered at sunrise, on an open space cleaned and purified for the occasion. A very important distinction is observed by all the Kolarians in the motives of the sacrifices to the supreme deity, and of those by which the minor gods are propitiated. To Singh Bonga the sacrifice is to secure a continuance of his mercies, and for preservation. The other deities are resorted to when disease or misfortune visits the family, the sacrifice being to propitiate the spirit who is supposed to be afflicting or punishing them.

'Ancestors are worshipped, or rather their memory is honoured, at the time of the *Sohrai* festival, and offerings are made at home by each head of a family. In the meantime the *naiyá* propitiates the local devils or *bhuts*. In many villages the Santáls join with the Hindus in celebrating the *Durgá Púja*, the great festival in honour of Devi, and the *Holi*, in honour of Krishna. Their own priests take no part in the ceremonial observances at those Hindu feasts, which are left to the Bráhmans.

'The person or persons who have to offer sacrifices at the Santál feasts prepare themselves for the duty by fasting and prayer, and by placing themselves for some time in a position of apparent mental absorption. The beating of drums appears at last to arouse them; and they commence violently shaking their heads and long hair, till they work themselves into a real or apparent state of involuntary or spasmodic action, which is the indication of their being possessed. They may then give oracular answers to interrogatories regarding the future, or declare the will of the spirit invoked or about to be propitiated. When the demoniacal possession appears to have reached its culminating point, the possessed men seize and decapitate the victims, and pour the blood into vessels ready placed for its reception. Among the Santáls in Chutiá Nágpur, Singh Bonga, or the sun, is the supreme god, the creator and preserver. The other deities are Jáhir Era, Monika, and Marang Búrú, who are all malignant and destructive. In the eastern Districts the tiger is worshipped, but in Rámgarh only those who have suffered loss through that animal's ferocity condescend to adore him. If a Santál is carried off by a tiger, the head of the family deems it necessary to propitiate the Bágh Bhút, the tiger; and to be sworn on a tiger skin is the most solemn of oaths.

'Santáls who, under the example and precept of Bengalí Hindus, have abjured some practices considered impure by the latter, are called Sat Santáls, that is, pure Santáls; but there is a national antagonism between the Santáls and the Hindus that prevents any close fraternization or communion between the races. The Santáls are not over

particular about food, but nothing will induce them to eat rice cooked by a Hindu, or even by a Bráhman. Unfortunately, during the famine of 1866 this was not known to us. The cooks who prepared the food distributed at the relief centres were all Bráhmans, and it was supposed that this would suit all classes; but the Santáls kept aloof, and died rather than eat from hands so hateful to them. They have no tradition to account for this bitter feeling. The animosity remains, though its cause is forgotten.

Social Customs. — 'The Santál parents have to undergo purification five days after child-birth; a kind of gruel is prepared, and after a libation to Singh Bonga or Marang Búrú, it is served out to the mother and the other members of the family. An eldest son is always named after his grandfather, other children after other relations. The Santáls have adopted as a rite the tonsure of children, and do not appear to recognise the necessity for any other ceremonial observance till their marriage when adult. Child marriage is not practised.

'There is no separate dormitory for the boys and girls in a Santál village. Accommodation is decorously provided for them in the house of the parents, but the utmost liberty is given to the youth of both sexes. The old people, though affecting great regard for the honour of the girls, display great confidence in their virtue. Unrestrained, they resort to markets, to festivals, and village dances in groups; and if, late in the evening, they return under escort of the young men who have been their partners in the dance or have played to them, no harm is thought of it.

Music.—'The peculiar emblem of the Santáls should be the flute; they are distinguished from all people in contact with them by their proficiency on that instrument. Made of bamboo, not less than one inch in diameter, and about 2 feet in length, their flutes are equal in size to the largest of our concert flutes, and have deep rich tones. This faculty of playing the flute and a general knowledge of singing and dancing were, they say, imparted to them by their first parents; and it was also by their first parents that they were taught the mysteries of brewing rice-beer, and they therefore consider there can be no great harm in freely indulging in it.

Dances.—'There is always reserved an open space in front of the *jag-mánjhí's* house as a dancing place. To this the young men frequently resort after the evening meal. The sound of their flutes and drums soon attract the maidens, who smooth and adjust their long hair, and, adding to it a flower or two, blithely join them. It is singular that, in this national amusement of the Santáls, we have handed down to us a most vivid living representation of one prominent scene in the sports of Krishna in Braja and Brindában. There is

nothing in modern Hinduism that at all illustrates the animated scenes so graphically delineated in the *Puránas;* but the description of the *Rása* dance in chapter xiii., book v., of the *Vishnu Purána* might be taken literally as an account of the Santál *Jumhir.* We have in both the maidens decked with flowers and ornamented with tinkling bracelets, the young men with garlands of flowers and peacocks' feathers, holding their hands and closely compressed, so that the breast of the girl touches the back of the man next to her, going round in a great circle, limbs all moving as if they belonged to one creature, feet falling in perfect cadence, the dancers in the ring singing responsive to the musicians in the centre, who, fluting, drumming, and dancing too, are the motive power of the whole, and form an axis of the circular movement. Thus, as the pivot for the dances, sometimes sported Krishna and his favourite companions, "making sweet melody with voices and flutes;" but more frequently they took their places in the ring, "each feeling the soft pressure of two maidens in the great circling dance." We are told that Krishna, when he thought the lovely light of autumn propitious for the *Rása* dance, commenced singing sweet low strains in various measures, such as the Gopís (milkmaids) loved, and they, as soon as they heard the melody, quitted their homes and joined him. Just so, on a moonlight night, the Santál youth invite the Santál maidens. Professor Wilson, in his note on the passages of the *Vishnu Purána* referred to above, observes that the *Rás játra* is celebrated in various parts of India in the month of Kártik (October), but that a circular dance of men and women does not form any prominent feature at these entertainments, and he doubts if it ever is performed. In the late autumn months the Kols and Uráons have numerous *játras*, at which these circular dances are performed by thousands.

Marriage Ceremonies. — 'With such freedom of intercourse, it follows that marriages are generally love matches, and, on the whole, happy ones; but it is considered more respectable if the arrangements are made by the parents or guardians, without any acknowledged reference to the young people. The price to be paid for the girl, averaging five rupees, with presents of cloths to her parents, having been determined on, a day is fixed for a preliminary feast, and afterwards for the marriage itself; and a knotted string, which shows the number of days that intervene, is kept as a memorandum. Each morning one of these knots is removed by the impatient lover, and, when the last is loosened, the bridegroom and his friends, with noisy music, set out for the abode of the bride. As they approach the village, the *jag-mánjhí* comes out to meet them, attended by women with water to wash the feet of the guests, who are then escorted to the house of the bride, and the two mingling together merrily sing, dance, and feast

in front of the bride's chamber. At the last quarter of the night, the bridegroom makes his appearance, riding on the hips of one of his comrades, and soon after the bride is brought out by a brother or brother-in-law in a basket. Then comes the inevitable *sindra dán.* The groom daubs his lady-love on the crown and brow very copiously with vermilion (*sindur*), and the assembled guests applaud with cries of *hari bol.* The bride and bridegroom, having fasted all day, now eat together, and this is supposed to be the first time that the girl has sat with a man at her food. It is creditable to the Kolarians that this custom has been retained through ages, notwithstanding the derision with which it is viewed by all Hindus. On the following day, before the party breaks up, the young people are thus admonished by one of the sages:—"Oh boy! oh girl! you are from this day forth to comfort each other in sickness or sorrow. Hitherto you have only played and worked (as directed), now the responsibility of the household duties is upon you; practise hospitality, and when a kinsman arrives wash his feet and respectfully salute him." No priest officiates at a Santál marriage. The social meal that the boy and girl eat together is the most important part of the ceremony. By this act the girl ceases to belong to her father's tribe, and becomes a member of her husband's family. Santáls seldom have more than one wife, and she is treated with most exemplary kindness and consideration. Should the husband be for any reason, as her barrenness, induced to seek a second partner during her lifetime, the first wife is never deposed from her position as head of the household; the second wife must obey her and serve her.

Hunting Expeditions.—'A Santál in prosperous seasons leads a pleasant life. He is either busy with his cultivation, or playing his flute, or dancing with the girls, or engaged in the chase. He throws himself with ardour into the latter pursuit, and in hunting down beasts of prey he evinces great skill and powers of endurance and indomitable pluck. The Santáls have every year a great hunting festival, in which thousands take part. These expeditions are organized with as much care and forethought as if the hosts engaged in them were about to undertake a military campaign. They take place in the hot season, when the beasts have least cover to conceal themselves in. When the array of hunters reaches the ground on which operations are to commence, they form a line of beaters several miles in length, every man armed with a bow and arrows and a battle-axe, and accompanied by dogs, who, though ugly creatures to look at, appear, like their masters, to be endowed with a true hunting instinct. When they emerge from the woods on open spaces, the game of all kinds that are driven before them suddenly appear. Birds take wing and are beaten down with sticks or shot with arrows; quadrupeds, great and

small, are similarly treated, and in this way deer, pig, jungle-fowl, peafowl, hare, etc., are bagged; but tigers and bears on these occasions of open warfare are generally avoided. These hunting excursions last for four or five days, and at the end of each day the Santáls feast merrily on the contents of their bags, and thoroughly enjoy themselves. The rule in regard to possession of an animal killed is that it belongs to him who first wounded it, no matter by whom the *coup de grace* may have been inflicted.

'The Santáls employed in the police force are very highly spoken of by an officer who long commanded them. They may not be expert detectives in tortuous cases; but in following up *dákáits*, and attacking them when found, they are far superior to the ordinary Bengalí constables, and many instances of their activity and pluck have been related to me. Living as they generally do on the edges of forests, their constitutions are proof against malaria, and they may be employed on outpost duty in localities that are deadly to most people. They have been thus utilized on the Grand Trunk Road in places where the jungle comes down to the road.

Dress.—'The Santáls dress better than most of their cognates. This also, it appears, is derived from the instruction of their first parents, who appointed the size of the garments that were to be worn respectively by male and female, but omitted to teach their offspring how they were to be made. They have no weavers among their own people. The women wear ample *sárís*, a large thick cloth, not less than six yards in length, with a gay red border. One-half of this forms the lower garment, secured at the waist, but not so as to impede the free action of the limbs; the other half is passed over the left shoulder, leaving the right shoulder, arm, and part of the breast free, and allowed to hang down in front. It is not, as with Hindu maidens, used also as a veil. The heads of young girls are generally uncovered, displaying a mass of black, rather coarse, but sometimes wavy hair, gathered into a large knob at one side of the back of the head, ornamented with flowers or with tufts of coloured silk.

'"Their arms, ankles, and throats," writes Colonel Sherwill, "are each laden with heavy brass or bell-metal ornaments. I had a quantity of these ornaments weighed, and found that the bracelets fluctuated from two to four pounds; and the entire weight sustained by one of these belles was ascertained to be no less than thirty-four pounds of brass or bell-metal. The average may be estimated at about twelve pounds."

'*In Funeral Ceremonies* the Santál varies from the practice of the Ho and Munda tribes. The body is borne away on a *chárpái* or cot by kinsmen; and when it reaches a cross-road, some parched rice and cotton-seed are scattered about, as a charm against the

malignant spirits that might throw obstacles in the way of the ceremony. It is then taken to a funeral pile near some reservoir or stream, and placed on it. The son or brother is the first to apply fire to the body, by placing a piece of burning wood on the face of the corpse; and soon all that is left are ashes and a few charred fragments of bones of the skull, which are carefully preserved. Towards evening, it is customary for a man to take his seat near the ashes with a winnowing fan, in which he tosses rice till a frenzy appears to seize him, and he becomes inspired and says wonderful things. After the incremation, the immediate relatives of the deceased have to undergo a quarantine, as impure, for five days. On the sixth they shave themselves and bathe, and sacrifice a cock. In due course, the bones that have been saved are taken by the nearest of kin to the Dámodar. He enters the stream bearing the sacred relics on his head in a basket; and selecting a place where the current is strong, he dips, and commits the contents of his basket to the water, to be borne away to the great ocean as the resting-place of the race. All inquirers on the subject appear to have arrived at the conclusion that the Santáls have no belief in a future state. The pilgrimage to the Dámodar with the remains is simply an act of reverence and affection, unconnected with any idea that there is a place where those who have left this world may meet again. It is to be observed that when the Santáls in disposing of their dead differ from the Mundas, they approximate to the Bráhmanical custom. It is, in fact, a rough outline of the Bráhman ritual, and only wants filling in. The halting at cross-roads and the scattering of rice, the application of fire first to the head by a relation, the collecting of the charred bones, especially those of the head, are all included in the ceremonies enjoined on Bráhmans and orthodox Hindus. The Bráhman, like the Santál, carefully preserves the bones in an earthen vessel; he is ordered to bury them in a safe place till a convenient season arrives for his journey to the sacred river—in his case, the Ganges—where he consigns the vessel with its contents to the waters.'

Sántalpur-with-Chádchat.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. The two Subdivisions of Sántalpur and Chádchat together form an estate ruled by a number of petty chieftains. Bounded on the north by the Morwára and Suigám estates, on the east by the States of Wáráhi and Rádhanpur, and on the south and west by the Rann of Cutch. The two estates measure together about 37 miles in length, and 17 miles in breadth. Area, 440 square miles. Population (1881) 20,466; estimated yearly revenue, £3500. The country is flat and open. *Ghasiá* or self-produced salt is found in large quantities. There are no rivers, but

many ponds exist, which in normal seasons retain water till March, when the inhabitants have to depend upon wells for their supply. Fever is common. The holders of this State are Járeja Rájputs, kinsmen of the Ráo of Cutch, by whom the country was conquered about 400 years ago. The ruling family hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption; in matters of succession they follow the rule of primogeniture. One school with 49 pupils in 1882–83.—*See* also CHADCHAT.

Santapilly (*Sentapilli*).—Village and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHANTAPILLI.

Sántipur.—The most populous town in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the river Húglí, in lat. 23° 14′ 24″ N., and long. 88° 29′ 6″ E. Population (1881) 29,687, namely, males 13,708, and females 15,979. Hindus number 20,701; Muhammadans, 8945; and 'others,' 41. Municipal income (1883–84), £2288, of which £1855 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2⅞d. per head. Sántipur is famous for its cloth manufactures, which were at first spread throughout the whole District, but afterwards became centralized in this town, owing to its being the site of a commercial residency and the centre of large factories under the East India Company. Considerable local trade. The *Rás-játrá* festival, in honour of Krishna, is celebrated at Sántipur on the day of the full moon in Kártik (October or November). The fair is visited by about 25,000 persons, and continues for three days, on the last of which there is a procession along the high-road. Sántipur is also a celebrated bathing-place.

San-ywe (*Tsan-rwe*).—The southern township of Tharawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. In the east, the country is mountainous and forest-clad, producing teak and other valuable timber; in the west, it is low and liable to inundation. The township is traversed from north to south by the Hlaing river, which receives drainage from the Pegu Yoma range, and communicates with the Irawadi on the west. Population (1881) 70,430. Land revenue, £10,876. Head-quarters at San-ywe village, containing a court-house and police station; population (1881) 615.

Sáoli.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 5′ N., and long. 79° 50′ E., 7 miles east of Múl. Population (1881) 3680, namely, Hindus, 3508; Muhammadans, 28; Jains, 9; and non-Hindu aborigines, 135. Manufacture of cotton cloth; and trade in cotton, cotton cloth, grain, groceries, and *gúr*. Sáoli has a weekly market, and contains a Government school.

Sáolígarh.—State forest, yielding teak and *sál*, in the north and north-west of Betúl District, Central Provinces. Comprises several blocks of hills between the Moran river on the east and north, and Rájáborái on the west. Area, 130 square miles.

Sáoner (*Sonáir*).—Thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 23′ N., and long. 78° 58′ E., 24 miles north-west of Nágpur city, near the main road to Chhindwára, with which place a good branch road connects the town. Population (1881) 5023, chiefly agricultural. Hindus number 4739; Muhammadans, 232; Jains, 7; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 45. Municipal income (1882–83), £159; average incidence of taxation, 7½d. per head. The Kolár river flows through the town, which stands in a fertile and well-cultivated plain. It has a circular market-place, with large masonry platforms, from which two broad metalled roads lead south-west and west through the most populous quarters, and are connected by a third street of similar character. Chief manufactures—cotton cloth, which is largely exported, and an inferior snuff, made by the Musalmán population. A large cattle fair is held weekly. Sáoner has a travellers' bungalow (rest-house), handsome *sarái* (native inn), police station, and school, in which English is taught. The fort in the centre of the town, now ruined, must once have been large and strong. Tradition relates that it was built by Gauli chiefs before the days of the Gonds; but for many generations Sáoner has belonged to the Gond family of Swasthánik.

Sáorgaon.—Village in Kátol *tahsíl*, Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3241, namely, Hindus, 3039; Muhammadans, 172; Jains, 9; and non-Hindu aborigines, 21.

Saptagrám.—Ruined town in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* SATGAON.

Sar.—Lake in Purí District, Bengal. A back-water of the BHARGAVI river, situated to the north-east of Purí town; its length from east to west is 4 miles, and its breadth from north to south 2 miles. Lat. (centre) 19° 51′ 30″ N., long. 85° 55′ E. This lake has no outlet to the sea, and is separated from it by sandy ridges, which are entirely destitute of inhabitants. The Sar is not used to any extent for fisheries; its water, however, is employed for irrigation when the rainfall proves deficient.

Sárá.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Alamnagar, on the east by Mansúrnagar, on the south-east and south by Gopámau and Báwan, and on the west by Sháhábád. A *parganá* with a fertile soil, and a large area occupied with *jhíls* and marshes. Area, 90 square miles, of which 49 are cultivated. The main products are wheat and barley, which occupy nearly one-half the total cultivated area. Population (1881) 34,527, namely, 33,140 Hindus and 1387 Muhammadans. Of the 85 villages in the *parganá*, 59 are owned by Chamár Gaurs. Only 1 of these villages is held in *tálukdárí* tenure, 40 in *zamíndárí*, 43 in imperfect *pattidárí*, and 3 in *bháyáchára* tenure. Government land revenue, £5612;

equal to an average of 3s. 7d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. per acre of total area.

Sáragaj (or *Langla*).—Hill range in the south of Sylhet District, Assam, running northwards as a spur from the State of Hill Tipperah. Estimated area, 81 square miles; height above sea-level, 1100 feet.

Saragúr (*Sargúr*).—Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 0′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 25′ E., on the right bank of the Kabbani river, 36 miles south-west of Mysore city. Since 1870, the head-quarters of the Heggaddevankot *táluk*. Population (1871) 1626; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. Owes its administrative importance to its healthy position, the neighbourhood being free from jungle.

Saráhán.—Town in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 30′ N., and long. 77° 50′ E., in a wooded amphitheatre, 3 miles from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and backed up by the snow-clad summits of a spur of the Himálayas. Thornton describes it as the summer residence of the Bashahr Rájá. Tasteful houses in Tibetan style, with pent-roofs, balconies, and intricate carved woodwork. Handsome temple dedicated to the goddess Káli. Northern limit of the Bráhmans, none of whom reside to the north of the town. Elevation above sea-level, 7246 feet.

Sarái Aghat.—Town and ruins in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Etah town 43 miles south-east, from SANKISA three-quarters of a mile north-west. Lies on either side of a ravine of the Káli Nadi. Population (1881) 2880. *Bázár* of well-built houses, leading to a central market-place. Police outpost station, village school. Trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed. Founded towards the close of the 17th century by three Afghán leaders, who came from Farukhábád District, and built the Sarái Abdur Rasúl and a mosque. West of the village stands a lofty and extensive mound, 40 feet in height and about half a mile in diameter, the northern portion being built over with brick houses. It bears the name of Aghat, derived from Muni Agastiya, the mythical regenerator of the Deccan. The houses on the top have been built of bricks from the mound, part of which has been honeycombed by excavations in search of building materials. Images of Buddha, together with gold, silver, and copper coins of all ages, frequently occur. In 1843, about £2000 worth were found among the ruins. Aghat probably formed part of the ancient city of SANKISA.

Sarái Akíl.—Town in Chail *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 22′ 43″ N., and long. 81° 33′ 15″ E., 20 miles west-south-west of Allahábád city. Population (1881) 2823. The town is noted for its colony of Thatheras, whose brass-work and metal ornaments have more than a local reputation. Bi-weekly markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays. Post-office, police station,

and village school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes, realizing £58 in 1881–82.

Saráikalá.—Political estate in Singhbhúm District, Bengal, lying between 22° 33′ and 22° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 53′ and 86° 13′ E. long. Area, 457 square miles. Population (1872) 66,347, inhabiting 568 villages or townships (*mauzás*), and 13,675 houses. Not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Saráikalá.—Village in Saráikalá estate, Singhbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 41′ 52″ N., long. 85° 58′ 28″ E. Weekly market for local produce and articles of trade. Bengalí school.

Sarái Kheta.—Village in Khutahán *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, and station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway; situated in lat. 25° 58′ 16″ N., and long. 82° 43′ 21″ E., 6 miles east of Khutahán town. Population (1881) 2921. Bi-weekly market, and large *sarái* (native inn). Post-office.

Sarái Mír.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 5238, namely, Hindus 2993, and Muhammadans 2245. A small municipal revenue is raised for police and sanitary purposes.

Sarái Sáleh.—Town in Haripur *tahsíl*, Hazára District, Punjab. Population (1881) 3533. Stands in the Haripur plain, of which it forms the ancient commercial centre. Considerable local traffic. Prosperous colony of weavers. Manufacture of brass and copper vessels. Large cultivation and export of turmeric. Goldsmiths from this place have been in the habit for generations of visiting Afghánistán and Central Asia in pursuit of their trade.

Sarái Sidhu.—Northern *tahsíl* of Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab; consisting of a lowland strip on either bank of the Beas (Biás) river, together with an extensive tract of barren upland. Area, 1752 square miles, with 299 towns and villages, and 11,361 houses. Number of families, 16,147. Population (1881) 80,012, namely, males 44,535, and females 35,477. Average density of population, 46 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Muhammadans, 66,796; Hindus, 13,084; Sikhs, 126; and Christians, 6. Of the 299 towns and villages, 252 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 35 between five hundred and a thousand; and 12 between one thousand and five thousand inhabitants. Of a total average cultivated area of 99 square miles, or 63,561 acres, for the five years ending 1881–82, wheat occupied 40,639 acres; *joár*, 4275 acres; gram, 2806 acres; barley, 2386 acres; and cotton, 2025 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £10,184. The local administration is in the hands of a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 77 men; village watch or rural police (*cháukidárs*), 89.

Sarái Sidhu.—Town in Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 35′ 30″ N., long. 72° 1′ E.

Sáran.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 25° 40′ and 26° 38′ N. lat., and between 83° 58′ and 85° 14′ E. long. Area, 2622 square miles. Population (1881) 2,280,382 souls. Sáran forms one of the north-western Districts of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Gorakhpur in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by the Bengal Districts of Champáran and Muzaffarpur, the boundary line being formed by the river Gandak; on the south by the Ganges, which separates it from Sháhábád and Patná Districts; on the south-west by the District of Azímgarh in the North-Western Provinces, the Gogra forming the boundary line; and on the west again by Gorakhpur District. The administrative head-quarters are at CHAPRA, which is also the most populous town of the District.

Jurisdiction.—Sáran formerly constituted one District with Champáran. The revenue areas of the two Districts were not finally separated until 1866; but the magisterial jurisdictions were first divided in 1837. The Judge of Sáran still holds sessions at Motihári in Champáran. The Sub-division of Sewán was opened in 1848, and a second Sub-division at Gopálganj was sanctioned in 1875.

Physical Aspects.—Sáran forms a vast alluvial plain, bounded on three sides by the great rivers Ganges, Gandak, and Gogra (Ghagrá), and intersected by numerous *nadís* or water-channels, which flow in a south-easterly direction, and carry off the drainage of the District. The rivers run on a higher level than the adjacent country, which is therefore liable to inundation when they overtop their banks. Beneath these high banks lie the basins in which the surface drainage primarily collects, to be discharged into the running channels at a lower stage in their course. The District has the shape of an isosceles triangle. The base, which is very irregular, lies to the north-west; one of the sides is formed by the Gandak, and the other by the Gogra and the Ganges; while the apex is at the south-east corner, where the Gandak and the Ganges join at Sonpur. From this spot, the levels slope very gently up towards the western parts of the District. Kochai Kot, in the north-west corner, is 222 feet above mean sea-level, while Sonpur is only 168 feet. The whole District is beautifully wooded, and mango-groves are very numerous. The lower levels are but sparingly used for rice cultivation; high rice lands predominate, and on these indigo, opium, wheat, barley, and several kinds of pulse are also grown. The soil is in many places saliferous, and saltpetre is extracted by the Núniyás, a poor and hardy caste. There are no hills in Sáran.

The only rivers which are navigable all the year round are the three

great streams already mentioned—the GANGES, GANDAK, and GOGRA. Among the smaller *nadís*, many of which dry up altogether in the hot weather, are the Sundí or Dáhá, the Jharáhí, the Gandakí, the Gangrí, the Dhanáí, and the Khatsá, all of which ultimately fall into the Gogra or Ganges. Alluvion and diluvion are constantly taking place along the banks of the large rivers. One bank of the river, on which the current strikes, is generally high and abrupt, while the other is shelving; but these characteristics may be reversed in a short space of time. The high bank is gradually eaten away, and the current then turns to the opposite side, where a similar process is repeated. Large sandbanks form in the bed of the river one year and are swept away the next, sometimes making changes in jurisdiction necessary. Thus, in 1872, an alteration in the deep stream of the Ganges transferred seven alluvial estates (*diárás*) from Sáran to Azímgarh District in the North-Western Provinces. The drainage of the District is from north-west to south-east, and is carried off by the many small *nadís* into the larger streams. When the rainfall is unusually heavy, these *nadís* are unable to contain all the water, and large tracts of cultivated ground are inundated. The consequences are specially disastrous when the mouths of the *nadís* are stopped by high floods in the great rivers into which they flow.

There is very little jungle in Sáran, and hardly any forest products. The lac insect is found on the *pípal* tree, and it is estimated that about 200 *maunds* of the dye are annually exported. Shells are largely gathered for burning into lime. The minerals found in Sáran District are Glauber's salt (*gulbar sora*); and nodular limestone of excellent quality, which is locally used for metalling the roads, and is exported in large quantities to Patná. Large game is not met with, although both tigers and leopards are said to have been at one time very common in the District. Wolves and wild hog are still numerous. Among the game birds found are quail, wild duck, snipe, plover, partridge, ortolans, and green pigeons. Snakes are very numerous. Crocodiles are common in the large rivers, and the rivers and marshes abound in fish.

Population.—Several early estimates were made of the population of Sáran. In 1800, a calculation based on an enumeration of the houses gave 1,104,000 as the number of inhabitants; but this included the present District of Champáran, which was not separated from Sáran until 1837. Estimates based on similar enumerations were made in 1843, 1847, 1854, 1855, and 1860, the earliest giving a population of 1,376,215, and the latest 1,271,729. The first accurate Census was that taken in 1872, which disclosed a total population of 2,063,860. The last enumeration in 1881 returned the population of Sáran District at 2,280,382, showing an increase of 216,522, or 10·49 per cent., in the nine years since 1872.

The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as

follows:—Area of District, 2622 square miles, with 7 towns and 4372 villages. Number of houses, 376,787, namely, occupied 326,699, and unoccupied 50,088. Total population, 2,280,382, namely, males 1,083,765, and females 1,196,817; proportion of males, 47·4 per cent. The slight excess of females is due to emigration of males from the more thickly populated tracts, to seek labour elsewhere. As regards density, Sáran is the most thickly populated District within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal (except the suburban District of Howrah), with an average pressure on the soil of 870 persons per square mile; as against 860 per square mile in Muzaffarpur, and 845 per square mile in Patná, both neighbouring Districts. Sáran is one of the most purely agricultural Districts in Bengal, with a very fertile soil; and in tracts like the police circles (*thánás*) of Mashrak, Digwárá, and Mánjhí, with no towns or large trade centres, the density reaches the enormous average of 1240, 1134, and 1047 per square mile respectively. The most sparsely populated *thána* is Barágáon, with an average of 689 per square mile. The number of villages over the whole District area averages 1·67 per square mile; persons per town or village, 521; houses per square mile, 143·7; inmates per house, 6·9. Classified according to sex and age, the population consists of—under 15 years of age, boys 461,553, and girls 442,538; total children, 904,091, or 40 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 622,012, and females 754,279; total adults, 1,376,291, or 60 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the Census Report of 1881 returns the Hindus at 2,010,958, or 88·2 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 269,142, or 11·8 per cent.; and Christians, 282. High-caste Hindus are strongly represented, numbering 579,800, or 25·3 per cent. of the total Hindu population, namely, Bráhmans, 173,362; Rájputs, 243,972; Bábhans, or *zamíndárí* Bráhmans, 84,733; Káyasths, 51,067; and Baniyás, 26,666. The Súdra or lower Hindu castes include the following:—Goálá, the herdsman caste, and the most numerous in the District, 256,513; Koerí, 150,354; Kandu, 120,310; Kurmí, 112,570; Chamár, 111,144; Dosádh, 79,593; Nuniyá, 68,720; Telí, 63,087; Lohár, 42,057; Káhár, 35,537; Nápit, 31,844; Kumbhár, 24,594; Kalwár, 23,979; Mallah, 22,599; Sonár, 21,472; Bind, 19,127; Dhánuk, 17,801; Dhobí, 17,103; Barhái, 16,936; Tatwá, 10,826; Baruí, 10,386; Garerí, 9881; Dom, 9506; Málí, 6909; Musahár, 6465; and Pásí, 5562. Caste-rejecting Hindus are returned at 3476, of whom 2320 are Vaishnavs. Aboriginal tribes number 20,953, including 11,428 Gonds (?); but all are returned as professing Hinduism. The Muhammadan population, classified according to sect, consists of—Sunnís, 231,533; Shiás, 4072; and unspecified, 33,537. Of the 282 Christians, 138 are Europeans by race, 10 Eurasians, and 134 Natives of India. By sect, 71 belong to the Church of England, 43 are Roman Catholics, 31 Protestants

without distinction of sect, and 34 are Lutherans; other sects and unstated, 103. A branch of the Lutheran Evangelical Mission has been stationed in Chapra town since 1840. The majority of the native Christians are very poor, nearly all being cultivators, domestic servants, or labourers.

Town and Rural Population.—The Census Report returns 7 towns as containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, CHAPRA, population (1881) 51,670; SEWAN, 13,319; REVELGANJ, 12,493; Panapur Chagwan, 6425; Ránípur Tengrahi, 6197; Mánjhí, 6068; and Parsa, 5735. The total urban population thus disclosed is 101,907, or 4·4 per cent. of the District population. Only the three first-named places, however, are towns in any sense of the word, and they constitute the only municipalities within the District. The other places are merely large villages or collections of hamlets, in the midst of which are conducted all the operations of agricultural life. The income of the three municipalities in 1883–84 amounted to £5302, of which £3556 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 11d. per head of the population (76,942) within municipal limits.

Of the 4372 villages, 1209 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1696 between two and five hundred; 989 between five hundred and a thousand; 392 between one and two thousand; 65 between two and three thousand; and 21 between three and five thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 14,915; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 27,432; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 26,640; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 479,076; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 62,040; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and all male children, 473,462.

The Material Condition of the People can hardly be good in a densely crowded agricultural District like Sáran. The District is unusually fertile, and almost every available acre highly cultivated. The larger husbandmen, and classes who hold at privileged rates of rent, are enabled to live in comfort in ordinary good seasons. But, considering the rise of rents in late years, it is doubtful whether the great body of cultivators, in spite of the general rise in prices of grain, are better off than formerly. In many parts of the District, too, the increasing number of indigo factories, and the demand for land on this account, are said to have further unfavourably affected their condition. The wealthier classes live in brick houses; the country shopkeepers and husbandmen in mud huts. The better class of houses in the town of Chapra have a verandah, often ornamented with carvings in wood. The house of an ordinary cultivator consists of three or four rooms,

with an outer and an inner verandah; and sometimes a covered place in the centre, where the family sit and receive visitors. The huts of the poorest classes are of a very primitive character, and consist merely of walls of common thatching grass, with a thin roof of the same materials, supported by a few bamboos. *Golás* or granaries for keeping rice are common. The estimated living expenses for a household of six members belonging to a well-to-do shopkeeper is estimated at about £1, 7s. per month; and for a similar family of the ordinary cultivating class, at a little below £1 a month, at the ordinary market prices. The husbandman, however, himself produces nearly all his food requirements; and he very seldom has to purchase anything beyond cloth and salt in the *bázár*.

Agriculture.—Rice is, perhaps, the most important crop grown in Sáran; though the area under rice is largely exceeded by the collective area under such inferior grains as *makai*, *kodo*, and *maruá*. It consists of two great harvests—the *bhadai* or autumn harvest, and the *aghání* or winter harvest, the latter being by far the larger of the two. The *bhadai* is generally sown broadcast on high ground in June, and reaped in September. Its chief varieties are, (1) *sathí*, (2) *sarha*, (3) *katki* or *munga*, and (4) *karháni*. *Agháni* rice is sown on low ground. In June, after rain has fallen, a nursery is selected, and ploughed three or four times before the seed is sown. It is afterwards transplanted, and is harvested in December or January. The 33 principal varieties of this rice are as follows:—(1) *Bhoinsloti*, (2) *kanugá*, (3) *kháhá*, (4) *jágar*, (5) *senegra*, (6) *jasariá*, (7) *thanomí*, (8) *sáro*, (9) *será*, (10) *sallá*, (11) *shakhjírá*, (12) *kalunjí*, (13) *sátul*, (14) *selá*, (15) *lánjí*, (16) *bataráni*, (17) *kájri*, (18) *láldána*, (19) *umath*, (20) *rathgoli*, (21) *dachni*, (22) *bellaur*, (23) *baharni*, (24) *bánsmati*, (25) *sámjírá*, (26) *jágar*, (27) *khera*, (28) *rás*, (29) *pahária*, (30) *síngháir*, (31) *syámsundar*, (32) *karanga*, and (33) *gajpatta*.

The other cereals cultivated are wheat, barley, and Indian corn. Green crops comprise *matar* or peas, *khesari*, gram, *arhar*, *mug*, *urid*, beans, sweet potatoes, mustard-seed, etc. Cotton, hemp, and flax are also grown. *Pán* or betel-leaf is generally cultivated on high land situated near a well or tank, in the vicinity of the homestead. Special crops comprise tobacco, sugar-cane, indigo, and opium; the latter being cultivated only under Government licence. The total area under indigo is (1884) estimated at 48,750 acres, yielding an average out-turn of 10,250 cwts., valued at £315,000. The total area under poppy is about 48,700 acres, with a yield of 733,360 lbs. Manure is used whenever it can be procured, and irrigation is largely practised for the cold-weather crops.

The poorer class of cultivators are, as a rule, deeply in debt. Rents are high, the following being returned as the average rates throughout

the District:—Transplanted rice, 9s. 6¾d. per acre; broadcast rice, 6s. 9d.; Indian corn, wheat, *maruá*, *arhar*, and cotton, 11s. 3d.; *kodo*, barley, and pulse, 9s. 5½d.; poppy, 15s. 8d.; indigo, 10s. 4½d.; and sugar-cane, 9s. 11d. It is very common to find Bráhmans, Bábhans, Rájputs, and other high castes holding the best lands in a village at rates varying from 50 to 75 per cent. below what a low-caste man pays for inferior land. Rents are now almost invariably paid in money, instead of in kind, as was formerly common. As a general rule, the cultivators claim to hold under a right of occupancy, but such tenures are rarely transferable, except with permission of the landlord. Tenants holding their lands without liability to enhancement do not number more than 5 per cent. of the whole. Wages have increased about 30 per cent. of late years. The rates for ordinary day-labourers vary from 3d. to 4½d. per day, according as they are employed in the country or the town; women and boys receive from 2d. to 3d. per day. Bricklayers and blacksmiths get from 6d. to 7½d. a day; sawyers, 6d.; and carpenters, from 4½d. to 7½d. a day. Prices of food-grains have risen in like proportion. In 1882–83, which may be taken as an ordinary year, 40 lbs. of common rice could be obtained for the rupee; while in 1883–84, a year of deficient rainfall, the price rose to 31¼ lbs. for the rupee. In 1877–78, when scarcity prevailed owing to an ill-distributed rainfall and excessive exportation to Southern India, only 27 lbs. of rice were to be got for the same money. Old records show that in 1790 the price was 150 lbs. for the rupee.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to blight, flood, and drought. The most common kind of blight is called *hindá*, a mildew which attacks wheat and barley. Insects do considerable damage; and also hailstorms in the cold weather. Sáran District, being bounded on two sides by large rivers, which flow on ridges and carry enormous volumes of water, is peculiarly exposed to inundation. The northern side of the District is now, however, completely protected by the Gandak embankment. Towards the south, along the banks of the Ganges and Gogra, protective works are still required, as large tracts are inundated nearly every year. The old records are full of complaints about these inundations, which in many cases rendered a remission of revenue necessary. The most noteworthy floods of late years occurred in 1871 and 1874. Droughts have occurred several times, the worst known having taken place in 1866 and 1874, both of which were caused by the failure of the local rainfall. During the scarcity of 1874, relief works on an extensive scale were undertaken by Government, and in the first fortnight of June a daily average of 229,885 persons were employed in road-making. Advances of grain were made to the extent of 324,831 *maunds*. Prices were kept down, however, by Government importations, and the highest rate reached for common

rice in 1874 was 12s. 1½d. per cwt., as against £1, 1s. 10d. per cwt. in 1866. To remedy this liability to drought, a scheme of irrigation was commenced in 1878, by which the waters of the Gandak are now led through the centre of the District. The total cost amounted to £70,000, on which sum a few planters and *zamíndárs* have guaranteed interest at the rate of 4 per cent. The total irrigated area is estimated at 163,800 acres.

Means of Communication, Trade, etc.—The District possesses a total length of 926 miles of made road; and the Bengal North-Western Railway (opened in 1884) runs east and west through the District, with stations at Sonpur, Chaprá, Sewán, and Mairwa. The principal manufactures are indigo, sugar, brass-work, pottery, saltpetre, and cloth. The chief exports from Sáran are oil-seeds, indigo, saltpetre, sugar, and grain of all sorts, except rice; the principal articles of import are rice, salt, and European piece-goods. The great trading mart of the District is Revelganj. In 1876–77, the total registered river traffic of Sáran District, including both imports and exports, amounted to just two millions sterling. A great portion of this total is merely through traffic, which comes down from Oudh and the North-Western Provinces, and changes boat at Revelganj and Semuria, on its way to Patná or Calcutta. Revelganj is perhaps the largest mart for oil-seeds (chiefly linseed) in all India. In 1876–77, the total registered import of oil-seeds into the District was valued at £265,000; the total export was £370,000, thus leaving a balance of more than £100,000 for the local produce. As regards food-grains, however, the figures show decisively that Sáran is unable to supply its own dense population. In 1876–77, the imports of food-grains of all kinds were valued at £326,000, as compared with exports valued at only £118,000. The other principal items of export were indigo (£179,000), and saltpetre and other saline substances (£67,000). Salt was imported to the value of £143,000. Owing to an alteration in the system of collecting trade statistics, later figures than those for 1876–77 are not available.

Administration.—In 1794, the net revenue of the District (which then included Champáran) amounted to £195,254, with a civil expenditure of £27,496; in 1850–51, the revenue (still including Champáran) was £230,567, with an expenditure of £24,131; in 1870–71 (after the separation of Champáran), the net revenue of Sáran alone was £185,072, with an expenditure of £43,826. In 1883–84, the six main items of Government revenue aggregated £203,734, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £122,612; excise, £34,362; stamps, £26,086; registration, £2492; road cess, £14,625; municipal taxes, £3557. Cost of officials and police of all kinds, £24,532. The total number of estates in Sáran District in 1883–84 was 4207, with 45,593 registered proprietors or coparceners; average

payment from each estate, £27, 2s. 10d., or from each individual proprietor, £2, 13s. 9d.

For administrative, police, and fiscal purposes, Sáran District is divided into three Sub-divisions and ten police circles (*thánás*), as follows:—(1) Head-quarters Sub-division, with the five *thánás* of Chaprá, Mánjhí, Parsa, Mashrak, and Dighwara; (2) Gopálganj Sub-division, with the two *thánás* of Gopálganj and Barágáon; and (3) Sewán Sub-division, with the three *thánás* of Sewán, Darauli, and Basantpur. Seven judges and 9 stipendiary magistrates. The regular and town police force in 1883 consisted of 539 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £9443, being an average of 1 policeman to every 4·8 square miles and to every 4230 of the population. Besides, the village watch or rural police numbered 5327 men, maintained, either by the *zamíndárs* or by service lands held rent-free, at an estimated total cost of £10,326 a year. Each village watchman has charge of 66 houses on an average, and receives an average pay in money or lands of £1, 18s. a year. There are 2 jails in the District, at Chaprá and Sewán towns, with a daily average prison population in 1883 of 262; the total admissions being 2134. The principal criminal classes are the Dosádhs, Goálás or Ahírs, and Maghya Doms.

Education has rapidly progressed since the introduction of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms in 1872. In 1870–71 there were only 9 Government or aided schools in the District, attended by 585 pupils. At the close of the year 1873–74 the inspected schools numbered 326, with 7066 pupils. In 1883–84 there were upwards of 1525 inspected schools, attended by about 18,000 pupils. The *zilá* school at Chaprá town had 388 pupils on the 31st March 1884. The Census Report of 1881 returned 19,452 boys and 631 girls as under instruction, besides 31,732 males and 1024 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The seasons in Sáran are very similar to those of Tirhút, but perhaps a little hotter. The hot weather begins about the end of March; and in a fortnight afterwards, hot westerly winds begin to blow during the day. At night, the wind comes generally from the east, and the temperature is comparatively cool, being lowered by occasional thunderstorms. The rains set in about the middle of June, and continue, with intermissions, till about the end of September or the middle of October. September is by far the most trying month of the year; the air is damp and steamy, while the sun's rays are extremely strong. The cold weather begins about the middle of October, and continues till the beginning of March. Average annual rainfall at Chaprá town, 39·43 inches. No thermometrical returns are available. The prevailing diseases are cholera, small-pox, fever, and dysentery. The civil surgeon states that it is doubtful if cholera

is ever really absent from the District; and it commits great ravages towards the end of the hot and beginning of the rainy season. Small-pox comes next in intensity, but the people are beginning to avail themselves of vaccination. Both these diseases are said to be now on the decrease, owing to the improved habits of the people and the high state of cultivation. The people who live in the neighbourhood of low rice lands suffer a good deal from fever. Dysentery, the result of bad water and insufficient clothing, is sometimes very severe. Six Government charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1883 at Chaprá, Sewán, Hatwá, Bhori, Gopálganj, and Revelganj to 60,243 patients. Cattle disease exists in the form of *guti* or rinderpest, and *kurhá* or foot-and-mouth disease. [For further information regarding Sáran, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. xi. pp. 225–371 (London, Trübner & Co., 1877); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bengal Government.]

Sáran. — Head-quarters Sub-division of Sáran District, Bengal. —*See* CHAPRA.

Sáranda.—Hill range in the extreme south-west corner of Singhbhúm District, bordering on Gangpur State, Bengal. Consists of a grand mass of mountains, rising to the height of 2738 feet, known as 'Sáranda of the seven hundred hills.' The population inhabiting this region is scattered over a few poor hamlets nestling in deep valleys, and belongs for the most part to one of the least reclaimed tribes of Kols.

Sárandá.—One of the *pírs* or groups of villages of the Kolhán, in Singhbhúm District, Bengal. According to the Census of 1881, the *pír* contains 88 villages, assessed at a Government revenue of £58. Lat. 22° 1′ 15″ to 22° 30′ N., long. 85° 2′ to 85° 28′ E.

Sárangarh.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, formerly one of the *Athára Garhját* or 'Eighteen Forts;' lying between 21° 21′ and 21° 45′ N. lat., and between 82° 59′ and 83° 31′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Chandrapur chiefship and Ráigarh State, on the east by Sambalpur District, on the south by the Phuljhar chiefship, and on the west by Biláspur District. Population (1881) 71,274 (of whom 63,231 were Hindus), residing in 442 villages and 25,406 houses. Area, 540 square miles, of which 320 were cultivated in 1877, while of the portion lying waste 80 square miles were returned as cultivable. Density of population, 132 persons per square mile.

The country is generally level, but in the south and east rise two considerable ranges of hills. The Mahánadi flows through the north of the State and affords water communication for a length of 50 miles; the only other river worth mention is the Láth. Though no large

forests remain, patches of *sáj*, *dháurá*, *tendú*, etc. are met with here and there. Bison, formerly numerous, have now abandoned the State; but tigers, bears, and leopards still range the hills and jungle. The soil is for the most part light and friable, with a strong admixture of sand. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, cotton, and a little wheat are also produced. The only manufactures are *tasar*-silk and coarse cotton cloth; and though iron-ore abounds, no mines are worked.

The chief is a Gond, and traces his origin through 54 generations up to Jagdeva Sá, a son of Narendra Sá, Rájá of Lánjí in Bhandárá about 91 A.D. In return for military assistance, Narsingh Deva, Rájá of Ratanpur, presented Jagdeva Sá with a *khilat* or personal mark of distinction, and conferred on him the title of *díwán*, together with 84 villages in the Sárangarh tract. Forty-two generations later, when Kalyán Sá was *díwán*, Raghují Bhonsla of Nágpur was stopped on his way to Cuttack by the Phuljhar people, who held the Singhora Pass against him. Raghují applied to Banojí, Rájá of Ratanpur, who directed Kalyán Sá to clear the pass. For this service, Kalyán Sá received the title of Rájá, with the right to carry a standard. The title was confirmed by Rájá Chhatra Sá of Sambalpur, when Sárangarh became a dependency of his kingdom; and by their military assistance from time to time to the Sambalpur princes, succeeding Rájás of Sárangarh gained further grants of villages and *parganás*, and gradually made Sárangarh a State of some importance. The only remarkable building in the State is the temple of Samleswar Deva, erected in 1748 by Aditya Sá Díwán. Sangrám Singh, the late Rájá, established a good school at his chief town, and there are also indigenous schools in other parts. During the minority of the present Rájá, Bhawáni Pratáp Singh, the State has been under British management. The young chief, who was educated at the Rájkumar College at Jabalpur, attained his majority in 1885. The tribute is £135; revenue (1883-84), £3850. The climate is unhealthy, and fever prevails widely from September to November.

Sárangarh.—Chief town of Sárangarh State, Central Provinces, and residence of the Rájá. Population (1881) 4220, namely, Hindus, 3638; Kabírpanthís, 35; Muhammadans, 230; and non-Hindu aborigines, 317.

Sarangpur.—Town in Dewás State, Central India Agency; situated on the right bank of the Káli Sind river, on the trunk road between Gúna and Indore, 92 miles from the former, and 80 miles from the latter. Population (1881) 13,543, namely, males 6610, and females 6933. Hindus number 8776; Muhammadans, 4737; and 'others,' 30.

Saraspur (*Sarishpur* or *Siddheswar*).—Hill range in the south of

Assam, forming the boundary between Cachar District on the east and Sylhet on the west. The height varies from 600 feet to 2000 feet above sea-level. At Badarpur, at the northern extremity of the range, is an ancient temple dedicated to Siva, who is worshipped under the name of Siddheswar (Lord of the Pure). An annual fair takes place here, which is numerously attended.

Saraswatí (*Sarsutí*).—Sacred river of the Punjab, famous in the early Bráhmanical annals. Rises in lat. 30° 23′ N., long. 77° 19′ E., just beyond the British border, in the low hills of Sirmur (Sarmor) State; emerges upon the plain at Zadh Budri in Ambála (Umballa), a place esteemed sacred by all Hindus; flows in a general south-westerly direction, and loses itself more than once in the sands, but reappears again with little diminished volume; passes by the holy town of Thanesar and the numerous shrines of the Kurukshetra, a tract celebrated as a centre of pilgrimages, and as the scene of the battle-fields of the *Mahábhárata;* enters Karnál District and Patiála State, where it finally joins the Ghaggar (lat. 29° 51′ N., long. 76° 5′ E.).

In ancient times, the united stream below the point of junction appears to have borne the name of Sarsutí, and, undiminished by irrigation near the hills, to have flowed across the Rájputána plains, debouching into the Indus below its confluence with the Punjab rivers. The deserted bed can still be traced as far as Mirgarh in Baháwalpur; but the water now penetrates no farther than Bhatner in Rájputána, where its trickling streams finally disappear by evaporation. The numerous dams across the hill torrents at the foot of the mountains probably account for the drying up of the ancient channel.

The name of Saraswatí, 'the river of pools,' sufficiently describes the character of the stream in its upper portion, where it dries up partially in the early months of the year, becoming a mere succession of separate ponds. To each of these is attached a legend and a shrine, visited by thousands of pilgrims every year. According to Hindu legend, the disappearance of the Saraswatí in the sands is accounted for as follows:—Saraswatí was the daughter of Mahádeo; but her father one day, in a drunken fit, approaching her with the intention of violating her modesty, the Hindu Arethusa fled, and dived underground whenever she saw her pursuer gaining upon her; and the river, which sprang up in her track, still disappears underground at the self-same spots. By devout Hindus the Saraswatí is supposed to flow in a subterranean course till it joins the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná) at ALLAHABAD, where the moisture on the walls of the crypt in the temple of the Undying Banian tree forms a conclusive proof of its existence in the eyes of the faithful. The real direction of the Saraswatí basin, however, lies towards the Indus below Mithánkot. Some of the earliest Aryan settlements in India were on the banks of the Saraswatí, and the

surrounding country has from almost Vedic times been held in high veneration. The Hindus identify the river with Saraswatí, the Sanskrit Goddess of Speech and Learning. [See Muir's *Orig. Sanskrit Texts*, vol. i., many passages (ed. 1868); General Cunningham's *Anc. Geog. Ind.* pp. 331–33 (ed. 1871); Prof. Dowson's *Dict. Hindu Mythol.* p. 284 (ed. 1879); and article INDIA, *ante*, Vol. VI.]

Saraswatí.—Silted up channel in Húglí District, Bengal. Formerly the main stream of the Ganges, and navigable by large vessels as far as SATGAON, the royal port of Bengal, from the earliest historical times up to the 16th century. At one time, this was a broad river flowing between high banks, at places 600 feet apart. It carried the main body of what is now the Húglí, and enjoyed religious honours as the true continuation of the Ganges. According to Sanskrit legend, the sanctifying waters of the Saraswatí enter the Jumna at Allahábád, and leave the Ganges at Tribení Ghát, 36 miles above Calcutta, in lat. 22° 59′ N., and long. 88° 26′ 45″ E. By the beginning of the 16th century, the Saraswatí mouth had so far silted up, that the Portuguese abandoned Sátgáon, and established a new port of their own a few miles lower down the Húglí at Gholghát, which grew up into Húglí town. At the present day, the Saraswatí at Tribení is a mere tidal ditch. The site of Sátgáon is left high and dry, but remains of old ships have been frequently discovered buried many feet in the ground. The course of the dead river can still be traced to the south-west of Tribení by a series of pools and marshes, until after throwing off a branch into the Damodár near Amptá, the main stream regains its character of a navigable channel near Sánkrel in Howrah District, where it re-enters the Húglí a short distance below the Calcutta Botanical Gardens.

Saraswatí.—River of Western India, rising in Mount Abu, Ráj-putána. Flowing through the Pálanpur and Rádhanpur States of the Mahi Kántha Agency, and through the Patan Sub-division of Baroda State, the Saraswatí, after a south-westerly course of over 100 miles, enters the Rann of Cutch to the east of the State of that name. In the vicinity of Sidhpur and Patan towns, by which the river passes, the Saraswatí is said to have a subterranean course of several miles, reappearing before it enters the Rádhanpur territory. The river is fordable almost everywhere; its banks and bed are generally sandy; it is nowhere navigable. The only importance of the Saraswatí consists in its sanctity. It is visited by Hindus, especially those who have lost their mothers; Sidhpur on this river being considered the appropriate place to perform rites in honour of a deceased mother, as Gayá in Behar is assigned for ceremonies in honour of a deceased father.

Sárathá.—Port on the Sárathá river, in Balasor District, Orissa. Lat. 21° 34′ 45″ N., long. 87° 8′ 16″ E. Frequented by native rice

sloops, the river being navigable as far as Nalítagarh, 8 miles from the sea. The sister port of Sárathá is CHHANUYA.

Sarath Deogarh.—Sub-division and town in the Santál Parganás, Bengal.—*See* DEOGARH.

Sarauli.—Village in Khakreru *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 40′ 21″ N., long. 81° 0′ 19″ E., 4½ miles from Khakreru town, and 22 miles from Fatehpur. Population (1881) 3228; prevailing caste, Lodhás.

Saráyan.—River of Oudh. Rising in Kheri District in lat. 27° 46′ N., and long. 80° 32′ E., after a course of 49 miles in a south-easterly direction it enters Sítápur District, where it receives the Jamwári on its left bank, in lat. 27° 32′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E. Thence it flows for about 3 miles in a north-westerly course, and, resuming its previous direction, joins the GUMTI in lat. 27° 9′ N., and long. 80° 55′ E. Total length, about 95 miles. It causes destructive floods in some years, as it drains a considerable area of country with its numerous affluents.

Sárda. — River of North-Western India and Oudh. Rising in the loftier ranges of the Himálayas, which separate Kumáun from Tibet, at an altitude of 18,000 feet, it debouches from the hills at Barmdeo, 148 miles from its source, in lat. 29° 6′ N., and long. 80° 13′ E., at an altitude of 847 feet above sea-level. The river is here 450 feet broad, with a minimum discharge of 5600 cubic feet per second. Shortly after leaving Barmdeo, it divides into several channels, which reunite 9 miles farther down at Banbása, but again separate, and finally join at Mundiá Ghát, 168 miles from its source, where the last rapids occur, and the stream becomes an ordinary river of the plains. Eleven miles lower down, it touches British territory in Khairigarh *parganá*, Oudh; and 11 miles farther on, or 190 miles from its source, it joins the CHAUKA near Mothia Ghát. From this point the united stream takes the name of the Chauká, till it falls into the GOGRA on its right bank, in lat. 27° 9′ N., and long. 81° 30″ E.

Sardár Shahr (*Sirdár Shir*). — Town in Bíkaner (Bickaneer) State, Rájputána; situated about 75 miles north-east of Bíkaner town. Population (1881) 5841. Hindus number 2748; Muhammadans, 851; and 'others,' 2242.

Sardhána.—*Tahsíl* of Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on either side of the Hindan river, and watered by the Ganges and Eastern Jumna Canals; comprising the *parganás* of Sardhána and Barnáwar. Area, 251 square miles, of which 184 square miles were cultivated. Population (1881) 159,422, namely, males 85,855, and females 73,567. Hindus number 117,803; Muhammadans, 33,770; Jains, 7267; and Christians, 582. Number of towns and villages, 123, of which 40 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 29 from five hundred to a thousand; 51 from one to five thousand;

and 3 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Land revenue, £30,043; total Government revenue, £33,051; rental paid by cultivators, £55,455. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court, with 3 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 36 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 276.

Sardhána.—Town in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, and former capital of the notorious Begam Samru; situated in lat. 29° 9′ 6″ N., and long. 77° 39′ 26″ E., on a low site near the Ganges Canal, 12 miles north-west of Meerut city. A station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Population (1881) 13,313, namely, males 6858, and females 6455. Hindus number 5898; Muhammadans, 5764; Jains, 1070; and Christians, 581.

The town has a poor and decayed appearance, being in a decadent condition since the death of the Begam Samru. Northward lies Lashkarganj, founded by the Begam as a camp, and the old fort; next succeeds a wide parade-ground; and southward stands the town itself. Local tradition assigns the foundation of Sardhána to one Rájá Sarkat at a period anterior to the Muhammadan conquest. Its modern history is interesting from its connection with the two European adventurers Walter Reinhardt and George Thomas.

The following sketch is condensed from an account given in the official Gazetteer of Meerut. Walter Reinhardt, better known by the name of Samru or Sombre, was a butcher by profession, and a native of Luxemburg. He came to India as a soldier in the French army, and deserting that service, took employment with the British, where he attained to the rank of sergeant. Deserting again, he rejoined the French service at Chandarnagar, and on the surrender of that settlement accompanied M. Law in his wanderings throughout India from 1757 to 1760. In the latter year, Law's party joined the army of Sháh Alam in Bengal, and remained with the emperor until his defeat in 1760 at Gayá by Colonel Carnac, in his attempt to reconquer Bengal from the Nawáb. Samru next entered the service of Mír Kásim, by whom he was employed to murder the English prisoners at Patna (PATNA DISTRICT, *q.v.*) in October 1763. He succeeded in escaping into Oudh, and afterwards entered the service of several native chiefs, until in 1777 he entered the service of Mírza Najf-Khán, the general and minister of Sháh Alam II., and received the *parganá* of Sardhána in fief, as an assignment for the support of his battalions. He died here in the following year, and was succeeded by his widow, the Begam Samru, who continued to maintain the military force. This remarkable woman, the illegitimate daughter of a Musalmán of Arab descent, and the mistress of Reinhardt before becoming his wife, assumed the entire management of the estate, and the personal command of the troops, which numbered 5 battalions of

sepoys, about 300 European officers and gunners, with 50 pieces of cannon, and a body of irregular horse.

In 1781 the Begam was baptized into the Roman Catholic Church, under the name of Johanna. Her troops rendered excellent service to the Delhi Emperor in the battle of Gokalgarh in 1788, where a charge of Sardhána troops, personally led by the Begam and the celebrated adventurer George Thomas, saved the fortunes of the day at a critical moment. In 1792, the Begam married Levassoult, a Frenchman in command of artillery. In 1795, her European officers became disaffected, and an illegitimate son of Reinhardt, known as Zafaryáb Khán, put himself at their head. The Begam and her husband were forced to fly. In the flight the Begam's palanquin was overtaken by the rebels, and she stabbed herself to prevent falling alive into their hands; whereupon Levassoult shot himself, in pursuance of a vow that if one of them was killed the other would commit suicide. The Begam's wound, however, was but a slight one, and she was brought back to Sardhána. Another account is that the Begam had become tired of her husband, and that her self-inflicted wound was only a device to get rid of him. However, all her power passed temporarily into the hands of Zafaryáb Khán, and she was treated with great personal indignity, till she was restored to power some months later by her old general George Thomas. Henceforth the Begam remained in undisturbed possession of her estates till her death in 1836.

After the battle of Delhi, and the British conquest of the Upper Doáb in 1803, the Begam submitted to the new rulers, and ever after remained distinguished for her loyalty. Her possessions were numerous, and included several considerable towns, such as Sardhána, Baraut, Barnáwa, and Dankaur, lying in the immediate neighbourhood of great marts like Meerut, Delhi, Khúrja, and Bágpat. Her income from her estates in Meerut District alone amounted to £56,721 per annum. She kept up a considerable army, and had places of residence at Khirwa, Jalálpur, Meerut, and Delhi, besides her palace at Sardhána. She endowed with large sums the Catholic churches of Madras, Calcutta, Agra, and Bombay, the Sardhána Cathedral, the Sardhána poorhouse, St. John's Roman Catholic College, and the Meerut Catholic Chapel. She also made over a *lákh* of Sonat rupees to the Bishop of Calcutta for charitable purposes, and subscribed liberally to Hindu and Musalmán institutions.

Zafaryáb Khán, the son of Samru, died in 1802, and left one daughter, whom the Begam married to Mr. Dyce, an officer in her service. David Ouchterlony Dyce Sombre, the issue of this marriage, died in Paris, July 1851, and the Sardhána estates passed to his widow, the Hon. Mary Anne Forester, daughter of Viscount St. Vincent.

The Begam's residence, on the east of the town, is a fine modern

house, with a grand flight of steps at the entrance and extensive grounds. It is well furnished, and contains some good pictures. The Roman Catholic Cathedral, built in 1822, stands south of the town, and is an imposing building, surrounded by an ornamental wall. St. John's College, for training priests, occupies a low masonry house, once the Begam's private residence. Four Jain temples. Schools. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office. Old fort at Lashkarganj in ruins. Sardhána is now essentially an agricultural town, with little trade and no manufactures.

Two excellent papers on the Sardhána estate, and a biography of George Thomas, in the *Calcutta Review* for January and April 1880, by Mr. H. G. Keene, B.C.S., differ in some unimportant points from the history of the estate as given above.

Sarení.—*Parganá* in Dálmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Khiron, on the east by Dálmau, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Daundia Khera. Area, 114 square miles, or 72,968 acres, of which 41,679 acres are cultivated. Population (1881) 63,823, namely, Hindus 61,236, and Muhammadans 2587. Of the 169 villages in the *parganá*, 143 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure, Bais Rájputs being the chief proprietary body; 23 villages are *zamíndárí*; and 3 are *pattidárí*. Government land revenue, £8924.

Sargúja.—The largest of the Native States of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; lies between 22° 37′ 30″ and 24° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 82° 32′ 5″ and 84° 7′ E. long. Area, 6055 square miles. Population (1881) 270,311 souls. Bounded on the north by Mírzápur, a District of the North-Western Provinces, and the State of Rewá; on the east by Lohárdagá District; on the south by Jashpur and Udaipur States, and the District of Biláspur in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Koreá State.

Physical Aspects.—Sargúja may be described in general terms as a secluded basin, walled in on the north-east and south by massive hill-barriers, and protected from approach on the west by the forest-clad tract of Koreá. The eastern portion of the State consists of an undulating table-land about 2500 feet above the sea, continuous with, but slightly higher than, the adjoining plateau of Chutiá Nágpur proper. From this, again, isolated hill ranges, and *páts* or plateaux, capped with a horizontal stratum of trap rock, rise to an elevation of 3500 and 4000 feet, forming on the north the boundary of Palámau, and blending in the south with the northern Jashpur Hills. The two most prominent physical features of Sargúja are the Máinpát, a magnificent table-land 18 miles long, from 6 to 8 miles broad, and 3781 feet above sea-level; and the Jamírápát, a long winding ridge about 2 miles wide. The Máinpát is well wooded and watered throughout, and supplies extensive grazing fields during the summer months; the pasturage dues

of this tract alone are estimated at £250 per annum. The chief peaks in the State are Mailán, 4024 feet; Jám, 3827; and Partagharsa, 3804. The principal rivers are the Kanhar, Rehr, and Máhán, which flow northwards into the Son (Soane); and the Sankh, a tributary of the Bráhmaní. None of these streams is navigable. Coal is found in Central Sargúja, in the BISRAMPUR field. There is a group of hot springs at Tatápání, in the north of the State; their maximum temperature is 184° F. *Sál* timber abounds everywhere.

History. — The early history of Sargúja is extremely obscure. Authentic records date from 1758, when a Maráthá army in progress to the Ganges overran the State, and compelled its chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Berar Government. In consequence of the chief having aided a rebellion in Palámau against the British at the end of the last century, an expedition entered Sargúja under the command of Colonel Jones. Order was restored, and a treaty was concluded between the British Government and the Mahárájá of Chutiá Nágpur, which, however, proved inoperative. As soon as the British force retired, fresh disputes broke out between the ruling chief and his relations; and in 1813, Major Roughsedge, the Political Agent, went to Sargúja and endeavoured to settle the affairs of the State. The young Rájá being imbecile, a *díwán* was appointed to carry on the government; but this officer was soon afterwards killed, and an attempt to seize the Rájá and his two Ránís was only frustrated by the gallantry of a small guard of British Sepoys who had been left in Sargúja for their protection. Until 1818, the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under a provisional agreement concluded with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sáhib), and order was soon restored. In 1826 the chief received the title of Mahárájá. The present chief, Mahárájá Raghunáth Saran Singh, attained his majority in July 1882, the State having previously been under the direct management of the Commissioner of Chutiá Nágpur.

Population in 1881 numbered 270,311, on an area of 6055 square miles, inhabiting 1286 villages and 51,122 houses. Males numbered 137,389, and females 132,922. Average density of population, 44·64 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·21; persons per village, 210; houses per square mile, 8·44; persons per house, 5·29. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 268,027, and Muhammadans 2284. The bulk of the population are of aboriginal descent, but the Census of 1881 does not give any ethnical classification. In 1872, however, the Dravidian aborigines, consisting principally of Gonds and Uráons, were returned as forming 40·1 per cent., and the Kolarian tribes 21·5 per cent., of the total population. The residence of the Mahárájá is at Bisrámpur; but Pratáppur is

virtually the capital of the State. It contains a court-house, jail, and school. Only two villages in Sargúja have a population of from 1000 to 2000 souls. The chief objects of interest are RAMGARH HILL, the remains of several temples, the deserted fortress of Júbá, and numerous images. [For a full account of these antiquities and of the aboriginal tribes of Sargúja, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 231–240.]

Agriculture, etc. — The staple crops are cereals, oil-seeds, and cotton. On an average, rents vary from 1s. 1½d. to 1s. 6d. per acre. Cesses, however, are levied, which equal, and sometimes exceed, the actual rent; and every cultivator is bound to work for his landlord fifteen days in the year, exclusive of the time spent in going to his work. This system of forced labour is at present the chief drawback to cultivation in Sargúja. The passes into the State are impracticable for wheeled traffic. The manufactures are pottery, coarse cloth, and rough ironwork. Weekly markets are held at Pratáppur, Bisrámpur, and Jhilmilí. Exports — food-grains, oil-seeds, *ghí*, lac, resin, and cocoons of *tasar* silk; imports—brass and pewter vessels, ornaments, piece-goods, and salt.

Administration. — The finances of the State have much improved while under direct administration; and in 1881, the year before the Mahárájá attained his majority, the revenue amounted to £4094, and the expenditure (including a tribute of £264) to £2109. Police duties are performed by the feudal sub-proprietors, styled *nákadárs*, each being responsible for the public peace within his borders. Sargúja is divided into 11 police circles, three of which are kept up by the State.

Sargúr.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore State.—*See* SARAGUR.

Sarh Sálimpur (or *Narwal*).—Easternmost *tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a fertile plain, lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the East Indian Railway. Area, 214 square miles, of which 123 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 101,830, namely, Hindus 97,547, and Muhammadans 4283. Number of towns and villages, 176, of which 110 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 34 between five hundred and a thousand; 31 between one and five thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Land revenue (1881–82), £22,955; total Government revenue, £26,196; rental paid by cultivators, £39,448. In 1885, the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court, with 4 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 37 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 367.

Sarila. — Petty State of Bundelkhand under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency and the Central India Agency. It lies within *parganá* Jalálpur of Hamírpur District, and is surrounded

on all sides by British territory. Area, 35 square miles. Population (1881) 5014, namely, Hindus 4655, and Muhammadans 359. Estimated revenue, £3000. On the division of his estates by Pahár Singh, son of Jagatráj, Rájá of Jaitpur, Mán Singh, his second son, obtained Sarila. His successor, Tej Singh, was expelled by Alí Bahádur, but eventually recovered a portion of his territories through the assistance of Himmat Bahádur. At the time of the British occupation of Bundelkhand, he was found in possession of the fort and village of Sarila. In consideration of his voluntary submission and influence in the District, he was granted 11 villages by *sanad* in 1807. The military force of the State consists of 4 guns, 40 cavalry, and 200 infantry and police.

Sarishpur (or *Siddheswar*).—Hill range in the south of Assam, forming the boundary between Cachar District on the east and Sylhet on the west.—*See* SARASPUR.

Sarjápur.—Municipal village in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 52′ N., long. 77° 49′ 5″ E. Population (1871) 2629. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £53. Considerable manufacture of cotton cloth, carpets, and tape. Muslins of fine quality are no longer made. A place of note in the time of Haidar's dynasty; but most of the Muhammadans are now in decayed circumstances. Weekly fair on Fridays.

Sarju.—River in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GOGRA.

Sarkandi.—Village in Gházípur *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District; situated in lat. 25° 44′ 32″ N., and long. 80° 57′ 4″ E., on the banks of the Jumna, 6 miles from Gházípur town. Population (1881) 2409; prevailing caste Bráhmans.

Sarkar Agrahára Vellalúr.—Town in Coimbatore *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5259, namely, Hindus, 5243; Muhammadans, 7; and Christians, 9. Number of houses, 1247.

Sarmastipur.—Trading village in Darbhangah District, Bengal.—*See* SOMASTIPUR.

Sarmor (or *Náhan*).—One of the Punjab Hill States.—*See* SIRMUR.

Sárnáth (probably a corruption of Sárangganáth, 'Lord of Deer,' referring to a legend of Buddha).—Buddhist ruins in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, distant 3½ miles north of BENARES city; Sakya Muni first preached his doctrines here, and some of the ruins probably date from his time (543 B.C.). The remains form a mound of brick and stone *débris* about half a mile long by a quarter of a mile broad, out of which still emerge the remains of two great *stupas*, and a third is in the vicinity. The most remarkable, specially known as the Dhamek, is a solid dome 93 feet in diameter, and 110 feet above the

plain. The plinth, 43 feet high, is of solid stone cramped with iron, and richly sculptured on the exterior. The upper part consists of dilapidated brickwork. The second *stupa* was excavated for bricks in 1794. The third, now called Chaukandi, is 800 yards south of Dhamek, and consists of a lofty ruined mound of brickwork, 74 feet in height, crowned by an octagonal building, commemorating the Emperor Humáyún's visit in 1531. The remains of many other buildings have been excavated in the vicinity. The Dhamek tower probably stands on the site of, if it be not identical with, that erected by Asoka to mark the spot where Buddha first preached his doctrine. The name is a corrupt form of Dharma, 'The Law.' Both Dhamek and Chaukandi *stupas* appear to be mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang. See General Cunningham's *Anc. Geog. Ind.* pp. 437, 438 (ed. 1871).

Saromannagar.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sháhábád; on the east by Báwan; on the south-east and south by the Sukheta river, separating it from Barwán; and on the west by the Garra river, separating it from Páli *parganá*. Area, 35 square miles, of which 21 are cultivated. Population (1881) 13,096, namely, males 7249, and females 5847. Government land revenue, £2172, equal to an average of 3s. 1½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 11d. per acre of total area. Of the 42 villages in the *parganá*, 20 are held by Sombansís, and 15 by Chamár Gaurs. Thirty villages are held in imperfect *pattidárí* and 12 in *zamíndárí* tenure. The country was originally occupied by Thatheras, who were driven out of many of their villages by Gaur Rájputs in the middle of the 12th century; and their total expulsion by the Sombansís occurred shortly afterwards. The *parganá* was first constituted in 1803 by Rájá Bhawání Parshád of Muhamdi, out of villages previously belonging to the neighbouring *parganás* of Páli and Sárá.

Saromannagar.—Town in Hardoi District, and head-quarters of Saromannagar *parganá;* situated 6 miles south of Sháhábád, and 15 miles north-west of Hardoi town. Population (1881) 1033, namely, Hindus 936, and Muhammadans 97. Village school. Bi-weekly market.

Sársa. — Town in Anand Sub-division, Kaira District, Bombay Presidency; situated 28 miles east by south of Kaira town, in lat. 22° 33′ N., and long. 73° 7′ E. Population (1872) 5218; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. The centre of the cotton trade of the District.

Sarsaganj.—Trading village in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 3′ N., and long. 78° 43′ 50″ E., on the Etáwah road, 6 miles north of the Bhadan station of the East Indian Railway, and 27 miles south-west of Máinpuri town. Population (1881) 5814, namely, Hindus, 4902; Muhammadans, 767; and 'others,' 145.

The village of Sarsa (population 2126) is a collection of mere agricultural hamlets, containing a large fortified brick house, belonging to a family of Kirár Thákurs; but the real importance of the place centres in the neighbouring *bázár* of Sarsaganj, the principal trading market of the District, and the only one which carries on business with surrounding towns. Fine market-place, known as Raikes-ganj; bi-weekly fair; large trade in cotton. Wealthy merchants, chiefly Jains; several Jain temples; very handsome little mosque of peculiar architecture. Large cattle market. Police station, post-office, village school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Sarsáwa.—Ancient town in Sahāranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Sahāranpur town 10 miles west, upon the Ambála (Umballa) road. Population (1881) 3978. Small trade to and from the Punjab. Chiefly remarkable for its historical associations, being identified by General Cunningham with Sharwa or Sharasháraha, the city of Rájá Chand, sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1019 A.D. The Rájá fled to the hills after the fall of his fort; but Mahmúd followed up the fugitives, defeated them in the midst of a forest, and captured an enormous booty in gold, silver, precious stones, and slaves. Police station, post-office, village school.

Sarsutí.—River in the North-Western Provinces, Punjab. —*See* SARASWATI.

Sáru.—The loftiest hill in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated in Lohárdagá District, west of Ránchí town; 3615 feet in height. Lat. 23° 30′ N., long. 84° 30′ 45″ E.

Sarvasiddhi. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Area, 311 square miles. Population (1881) 131,754, namely, males 65,395, and females 66,359, occupying 27,868 houses in 150 villages. Hindus number 129,018; Muhammadans, 2709; Christians, 19; and 'others,' 8. The *táluk* in olden times formed a *zamíndárí*, which was purchased by Government for £75 in 1831. It is near the coast, and contains some of the best wet crop land in Vizagapatam District; but it is liable to sudden and injurious rains. In 1883 the *táluk* contained — criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 54 men. Land revenue, £14,375. Head-quarters Yelamanchili.

Sarvepalli. — Town in Gudúr *táluk*, Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 17′ 30″ N., long. 80° 0′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 4929, namely, Hindus, 4624; Muhammadans, 300; and Christians, 5. Number of houses, 965. Sarvepalli contains the ruins of an old Rohillá fort. Its irrigation tank is one of the finest in the District, and is filled from the Penner (Ponnaiyár) anicut.

Sarwán.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 36′ N., and long. 80° 56′ E., 6 miles north-east of Purwá, and 26 miles east

of Unao town. Population (1881) 2014, namely, Hindus 1913, and Musalmáns 101. A very ancient village, with a noted Sivaite temple. Concerning this temple, Mr. C. A. Elliott narrates the following tradition in his *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 5, 6:—'To worship at this temple, and to shoot and hunt in the wild forest country around, came Rájá Dasaratha from Ajodhya, the father of Rámchandra, the 57th Rájá of Ajodhya. He was encamped at Sarwára on the edge of a tank. By night came Sarwán, a holy Rishi from Chaunsa (near Ajodhya), by caste a Baniyá. He was going on pilgrimage, and was carrying his blind father and mother in a pair of baskets, slung over his shoulders. Reaching the tank, he put his burden down and stopped to drink. Rájá Dasaratha heard a rustling noise, and thinking it was some wild beast, took up his bow and shot an arrow, which struck Sarwán, and he died. Then his blind parents in their misery lifted up their voices and cursed the man who had done the thing. They prayed that as he had slain the son who was the light of their hearts, so he might have trouble and sorrow from his own children, and might die of grief even as they were dying. Having so said, they gave up the ghost; and from that day to this no Kshattriya has lived in the town which is founded on the spot, and is called Sarwán. Many have tried it, but evil has overtaken them in one way or another. The tank remains to this day, and by it lies under a tree the body of Sarwán, a figure of stone; and as he died with his thirst unquenched, so if water is poured into the navel of the figure, the hole can never be filled up, but is inexhaustible in its demand.'

Sarwár.—Town in Kishangarh State, Rájputána; situated about 25 miles south-east of Nasirábád. Population (1881) 5361, namely, Hindus, 4107; Muhammadans, 785; and 'others,' 469.

Sarya.—Indigo factory in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated 18 miles south-west of Muzaffarpur town, on the banks of the Bayá river, which is here crossed by the Chaprá road on a fine three-arched bridge. A short distance from Saryá is a monolith called Bhím Singh's *láthí* or club, supporting a lion carved in stone. It consists of a plain cylinder about 24 feet high, on the top of which is a pedestal with the lion. The cylinder is in one piece, the height of the whole being about 30 feet. Its depth below ground is unknown, but it must be very great, as some persons once dug down several feet, and failed to reach the foundation. The stone is covered with names, many of them English, some of which date from 1793. It stands in the courtyard of a Bráhman's house, but no religious meetings take place here. Close at hand is a well or deep excavation; and the Bráhman who owns the land on which the monolith stands affirms that a large amount of treasure is believed to lie concealed beneath, and that this excavation was made to try and recover it. The indigo factory and attached lands

cultivate about 4600 *bighás*, giving an average annual out-turn of about 530 *maunds* of dye.

Sásni (*Sásani*).—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 42′ 12″ N., long. 78° 8′ 5″ E. Distant from Alígarh town 14 miles south on the Agra road, from Háthras 7 miles north. Population (1881) 4851. Steadily declining in importance. Remains of ancient fort, which held out under its chief against Lord Lake in 1803, when it was captured, not without considerable loss. Monuments in memory of the officers killed in the attack. Indigo factories, built from the materials of the fort. Police station, post-office, encamping ground for troops. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Sásserám.—Sub-division of Sháhábád District, Bengal; lying between 24° 31′ and 25° 22′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 33′ and 84° 30′ E. long. Area, 1493 square miles; villages, 1986; houses, 77,618. Population (1881) 519,207, namely, males 253,757, and females 265,450. Hindus number 475,395; Muhammadans, 43,748; Christians, 44; and 'others,' 20. Average density, 348 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·33; persons per village, 261; houses per square mile, 57; persons per house, 6·7. This Sub-division consists of the 4 police circles of Sásserám, Khargarh, Dhangáin, and Dehri. In 1870–71 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, a regular police force of 141, and a village watch of 1713 men.

Sásserám.—Chief town of Sásserám Sub-division, Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 61 miles south of Arrah, in lat. 24° 56′ 59″ N., and long. 84° 3′ 7″ E. Population of Sásserám village (1881) 2531; of the municipality, 22,000. Municipal income (1883–84), £1499, of which £761 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 8¼d. per head. The name Sásserám or Sahsrám signifies one thousand toys, because a certain Asur or infidel who lived here had a thousand arms, each holding a separate plaything. The town, now fast declining in importance, is noted as containing the tomb of the Afghán Sher Sháh, who conquered Humáyún, and subsequently became Emperor of Delhi. His mausoleum is at the west end of the town, within a large tank, the excavated earth of which has been thrown into unshapely banks some distance off. The tomb itself consists of an octagonal hall surrounded by an arcade, which forms a gallery; the roof is supported by four Gothic arches; the ornaments are in the very worst taste. It is now being repaired at Government expense. (For full details respecting this monument, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 205–208). The remarkable mosque of Chandan Shahid is situated on a lofty hill east of the town.

Sasu.—River in the south of Lakhimpur District, Assam.—*See* SESA.

Sáswar (*Sasar*).—Chief town of the Purandhar Sub-division of Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the left bank of the river Kárha 16 miles south-east of Poona city, in lat. 18° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 74° 4′ 20″ E. Population within municipal limits (1881) 5684, namely, Hindus, 5411; Muhammadans, 249; and Jains, 24. Sáswar was the original Deccan home of the Peshwá's family. Beyond the town, across the river Kárha, stands the palace of the old Peshwá, now used for the Collector's office. Near the junction of the Kárha and one of its minor tributaries is a walled building, the palace of the great Bráhman family Purandhare of Purandhar, whose fortunes for upwards of a century were closely connected with those of the Peshwás. This latter palace was formerly strongly fortified, and in 1818 was garrisoned and held out for ten days against a detachment of British troops. About 1840 the Mírs of Sind were confined in Sáswar. Municipal income (1883–84), £336; incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head. Dispensary, post-office, and two schools.

Sata.—Channel of the Indus in Sind, Bombay Presidency. The most important eastern branch of the river, that to the west being known as the BAGHAR. The Sata sends off, on the left or eastern side, two branches, the Mal and the Manti, both of which are now only shallow streams. Before the great earthquake that occurred in Cutch (Kachchh) in 1819, vessels from seaward entered the Richal mouth, the only accessible entrance, and passed into the Hajámro through what was then the Khedewári creek, and thence into the Mal to Sháhbandar, an important naval station under the Kalhora princes. This passage was closed by the earthquake, and a new mouth opened, viz. the Kukaiwári, which in 1867 was found to be completely choked by sand. The Khedewári was described by Lieutenant Carless in 1837 as having a depth of from 16 to 18 feet, but since 1845 the Hajámro had taken its place as the main channel.

Sátána (or *Báglan*).—Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 619 square miles. Population (1881) 64,875, namely, males 32,885, and females 31,990, occupying 9992 houses in 155 villages. Hindus number 48,972; Muhammadans, 1678; and 'others,' 14,225. The chief river is the Mosam. The route from the Deccan through Sátána to the Gujarát coast has been a line of traffic from remote times. Akbar, when he conquered Khándesh in 1599, attempted to capture Sátána, and besieged the chief Pratápsháh for seven years unsuccessfully, and was in the end obliged to compound with him. In 1637, Sátána was attacked by Aurangzeb. The chief submitted and was made commander of 3000 horse. Sátána formed part of Khándesh District till 1869, when it was transferred to Násik. In 1875, Sátána, with its two petty divisions of Jaikhedan and Abhona, was divided into two Sub-divisions, Sátána (or Báglan) and

Kalwan. In 1880-81, 6658 holdings or *khatas* were recorded, with an average area of 26½ acres, paying an average assessment of £2, 2s. 6d. The area under cultivation in 1880 was 145,763 acres. Cereals and millets occupied 106,578 acres; pulses, 22,882; oil-seeds, 15,475; fibres, 500; and miscellaneous crops, 1756 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 63 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 306.

Sátána.—Town in Sátána or Báglan Sub-division, Násik District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 30 miles west of Málegáon. Population (1881) 3516. Dispensary, post-office, annual fair.

Sátánones. — Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 67 square miles. Population (1881) 411. Estimated revenue, £95, of which £10, 0s. 6d. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Satanwári.—Fort in Bhopál State, Central India Agency; situated in lat. 23° 36′ N., and long. 77° 10′ E., 30 miles north-west of Bhopál town, close to the Gwalior frontier. Satanwári appears, says Thornton, to have been granted with other possessions in 1818 by the British Government to the Nawáb of Bhopál, 'in order to mark its approbation of his conduct, and to enable him to maintain the stipulated contingent.'

Sátára.—British District in the Deccan or Central Division of the Bombay Presidency, lying between 16° 51′ and 18° 10′ 30″ N. lat., and between 73° 37′ and 74° 58′ E. long. Area, 4988 square miles. Population (1881) 1,062,350 souls. It is bounded on the north by the States of Bhor and Phaltan, and the Níra river separating it from Poona; on the east by Sholápur District and the estates of the Panth Pratinidhi and the chief of Ját; on the south by the river Várna, separating it from Kolhápur and Sángli States, and by a few villages of Belgáum District; and on the west by the Sahyádri range of hills, separating it from the Konkan or southern Districts of Kolába and Ratnágiri. The administrative head-quarters are at SATARA TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—From Mahábaleshwar in the north-west corner of the District, 4717 feet above the sea, start two hill ranges of equal height and nearly at right angles to each other—one the main range of the Sahyádris, running towards the south and forming the western boundary of the District; and the other the Mahádeo range of hills, which, going first in an easterly and then in a south-easterly direction, extends towards the eastern boundary, where it sinks gradually into the plain. These hills throw out numerous spurs over the District, forming the valleys of the several streams which make up the head-waters of the Kistna, one of the largest rivers in Western India. Except near Mahábaleshwar, and in the valley of the Koina, the hills of the

District are very low, and have a strikingly bare and rugged aspect. The Mahádeo range, even in the rainy season, is but scantily covered with verdure. The hills are bold and abrupt, presenting in many cases bare scarps of black rock, and looking at a distance like so many hill fortresses. They consist of trap, intersected by strata of basalt and topped with laterite.

Of the different soils on the plains, the commonest is the black loamy clay containing carbonate of lime. This is very fertile, and when well watered is capable of yielding heavy crops. Red clay is found near the foot of the hills. Besides many soils of a light and dark brown colour, white nodules of pure lime, and also light brown loam with a large proportion of lime, are often met with in the east.

The water-supply, especially in the west, is tolerably plentiful; but in the east, during the hot weather, there is great scarcity. The supply comes partly from rivers and partly from numerous ponds and wells. Almost all the rivers rising near Mahábaleshwar on the Sahyádri range, or in the Mahádeo Hills, flow directly or indirectly into the Kistna. Except a small area in the north and north-east that drains into the Bhíma, the District of Sátára is the head valley of the Kistna river. Down the centre, with a general slope to the south and south-west, along a valley which slowly opens into a plain, the Kistna flows first to the south and then to the east, passing across the whole District from its north-west to its south-east corner. From the central plain of the Kistna eight valleys branch to the hills. Some of the streams of these valleys hold water only for a short time after the rains; but by throwing temporary dams across them and leading their water into canals, they are much utilized for irrigation. During the hot season, most of the ponds and wells become dry.

The city of SATARA receives its supply through pipes from a reservoir on the Enteshwar Hill, built by Rájá Pratáp Singh. Scarcity of water is, however, felt in the city during the hot season, and steps are being taken to increase the supply by improving some of the reservoirs. Irrigation works have been constructed on the Kistna near Kárad, on the Yerla at Khatgáon, on the Nira near Málshiras, on the Mán, on the Vásna, on the Váng, and on the Nándni.

The whole of Sátára falls within the Deccan trap area. As in other parts of the West Deccan, the hills are layers of soft or amygdaloid trap, separated by flows of hard basalt and capped by laterite or iron clay.

Iron and copper ore, found in abundance on the Mahábaleshwar and Mahádeo Hills, were formerly worked by the Musalmán tribe of Dhávdás. Owing, however, to the fall in the value of iron and the rise in the price of fuel, smelting is now no longer carried on.

Forests cover an area of 662 square miles, or 13·3 per cent. of the total area. Almost the whole of the District is hilly. The forests

are scattered over the District, and are much broken by private and cultivated land. In the west, the belt of evergreen forest along the line of the Sahyádris is divided into six forest ranges. These six ranges are fairly compact, with little cultivated land between. The seven eastern forest ranges are bare hills, with here and there a little scrub and teak. The forests of the western Sub-divisions have a large store of timber and firewood. *Jámbul* (Eugenia jambolana), *gela* (Vangueria spinosa), and *pesha* (Cylicodaphne wightiana) grow on the main ridge of the Sahyádris, and small teak on the eastern slopes. Sandal-wood is occasionally found, and the mango, jack, and guava are often grown for their fruit. Patches of bamboo sometimes occur. The cinchona plantation, established in Lingmala near Mahábaleshwar, has proved a failure.

Of wild animals, tigers, bears, hyænas, bison, wild boar, and *sámbhar* deer are found only in the western hills, and hares and jackals throughout the District. The once famous breed of horses in the Nira valley has degenerated, and Government efforts to improve it have so far met with little success.

History.—It seems probable that, as in the rest of the Bombay Deccan and Konkan, the Andhrabhritya or Shátakarni kings (B.C. 90–A.D. 300), and probably their Kolhápur branch, held Sátára till the third or fourth century after Christ. For the 900 years ending early in the fourteenth century with the Muhammadan overthrow of the Deogiri Jádhavs, no historical information regarding Sátára is available; and the Deonágari and Kánarese inscriptions which have been found on old temples have not yet (1885) been translated. Still, as inscribed stones and copper-plates have been found in the neighbouring Districts of Ratnágiri and Belgáum and the State of Kolhápur, it is probable that the Early and Western Chálukyas held Sátára District from about 550 to 760; the Ráshtrakutas to 973; the Western Chálukyas, and under them the Kolhápur Síláharás, to 1220; and the Deogiri Jádhavs till the Muhammadan conquest of the Deccan about 1300.

The first Muhammadan invasion took place in 1294, and the Jádhav dynasty was overthrown in 1318. The Muhammadan power was then fairly established, and in 1345 the Bahmaní dynasty rose to power. On the fall of the Bahmanís towards the end of the 15th century, each chief set up for himself; the Bijápur kings finally asserted themselves; and under the Bijápur kings the Maráthás arose. Sátára, with the adjacent Districts of Poona and Sholápur, formed the centre of the Maráthá power. The history of that power belongs to the general annals of India. Its founder, Sivají, commenced his career as a free-lance about the year 1644; and during the remainder of the century, his family rapidly aggrandized itself at the expense both of the Bijápur King and of the Delhi Emperor.

The general decay of the Mughal Empire from 1700 to 1750 opened the way for the Maráthá supremacy. The Peshwás, or Mayors of the Palace, date their power from Balají, about 1718. In 1749, the sovereignty passed from the Sátára Rájás to the Bráhman Peshwás, with their head-quarters in the adjoining District of Poona. The descendants of Sivají became little more than pensioned prisoners, but they clung to the title of Rájá of Sátára. The battle of Pánipat in 1761 broke the power of the great Maráthá confederacy. But the Peshwás still remained the most important native rulers in India till the rise of Haidar Alí.

Repeated wars with the English ended in the final defeat of the Peshwá's army at Ashti in 1818. His territory was thereupon annexed; but the English, with a politic generosity, freed the titular Maráthá Rájá (the descendant of Sivaji) from the Peshwá's control, and assigned to him the principality of Sátára. Captain Grant Duff was appointed his tutor until he should gain some experience in rule. In April 1822, the Sátára territory was formally handed over to the Rájá, and thenceforward was managed by him entirely. After a time, he became impatient of the control exercised by the British Government; and as he persisted in intriguing and holding communications with other princes, in contravention of his treaty, he was deposed in 1839, and sent as a State prisoner to Benares, and his brother Sháhjí was placed on the throne. This prince, who did much for the improvement of his people, died in 1848 without male heirs; and after long deliberation, it was decided that the State should be resumed by the British Government. Liberal pensions were granted to the Rájá's three widows, and they were allowed to live in the palace at Sátára. The survivor of these ladies died in 1874.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 showed a total population of 1,116,050; that of 1881 a total of 1,062,350, residing in 14 towns and 1329 villages, and in 151,173 houses; unoccupied houses numbered 23,233. Area, 4988 square miles. Average density of population, 212·98 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·27; houses per square mile, 34·9; persons per village, 791·03; and persons per house, 7·02. Classified according to sex, there were 532,525 males and 529,825 females; proportion of males, 50·1 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 220,901, and girls 199,697; total children, 420,598, or 39·6 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 311,624, and females 330,128; total adults, 641,752, or 60·4 per cent. of the population. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 1,008,918; Muhammadans, 36,712; Jains, 15,679; Pársís, 99; Christians, 886; Jews, 21; Sikhs, 29; and Buddhists, 6.

The Hindus were divided into the following main castes and social distinctions:—Bráhmans (priestly caste), 48,362; Rájputs (warrior caste),

1328; Chamárs, 16,105; Darjís (tailors), 9664; Dhangars, 41,547; Dhobís (washermen), 7640; Nápits (barbers), 14,251; Jangams, 3796; Kunbís (cultivators), 583,569; Kolís (cultivators), 4198; Kumbhárs (potters), 12,321; Koshtis, 8632; Lingáyats (traders), 17,035; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 5193; Málís (gardeners), 24,784; Mángs (depressed caste), 20,919; Mhárs (depressed caste), 87,679; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 8231; Sutárs (carpenters), 11,043; Telís (oilmen), 9499; Banjárás, 2046; and 'others,' 71,076. The Muhammadan population consisted of—Patháns, 3780; Sayyids, 4235; Shaikhs, 27,979; and 'others,' 718. According to sect,—Sunnís, 36,109; Shiás, 546; and 'others,' 57. The Christian population of Sátára District included — Europeans, 407; Eurasians, 19; and natives, 460. Adopting another system of classification, there were—Roman Catholics, 387; followers of the Church of England, 317; and followers of other Christian creeds, 182.

Of the Hindus, who form the great majority of the population, more than a half consist of Kunbís, who during the period of Maráthá ascendency (1674–1817) furnished the bulk of the armies. The Mávlás, Sivaji's best soldiers, were drawn from the *ghátmátha* (hill-top) portion of the District. During the last half-century they have become quiet and orderly, living almost entirely by agriculture. Dark-skinned and, as a rule, small, they are active and capable of enduring much fatigue. Bráhmans, employed as priests or Government servants, are found in large numbers in the towns of Sátára and Wái. Besides these, Vánis, Dhangars, Rámosis, Mhárs, and Mángs are among the principal castes met with throughout the District.

With reference to occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind, and members of the learned professions, 18,118; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 4872; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, and carriers, 4086; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 241,526; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 46,257; and (6) indefinite and non-productive classes, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 217,666.

Of the 1343 towns and villages in Sátára in 1881, 289 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 410 from two to five hundred; 331 from five hundred to one thousand; 224 from one to two thousand; 49 from two to three thousand; 28 from three to five thousand; 8 from five to ten thousand; 3 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 from twenty to fifty thousand. Municipal towns—Sátára (1881), 28,601; Wái, 11,676; Karád, 10,778; Tásgáon, 10,206; Ashta, 9548; Islámpur, 8949; Rahimatpur, 6082; Mhaswad, 5581; Vita, 4477; Malcolmpet, 3248; Mayni, 2997; Pusesavli, 2569; Shingnápur, 1167.

Agriculture.—Agriculture, the main occupation of the people, supported in 1881, 744,013 persons, or 70·0 per cent. of the population; 374,576 only were agricultural workers. Of the total area of the District (5378 square miles), 3385 square miles are cultivated, of which 73 square miles are non-revenue-paying. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £166,323; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 1s. 4½d. The average area of cultivable and uncultivated land per agricultural worker is 5·9 acres.

The bulk of the Sátára landholders are Maráthá Kunbís. But the best class of husbandmen are the Jains of the south and south-west of the District. In the east of the District, the landholders are said to be only moderately hard-working; and the richer soils in the west are said to suffer from being cropped several years in succession without fallow. At the same time, certain parts of the District show notable instances of skill and enterprise. Sátára suffered from the famine of 1876–78; and the indebtedness of the people to the money-lenders has demanded special steps to be taken to preserve their position as peasant proprietors, by the introduction of the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act. The soils of the District belong to three main classes, red in the hills, and black and light coloured in the plains. The black soil, especially along the valley of the Kistna and its tributaries, is very fertile, yielding two crops a year.

According to the Revenue Survey, of the total area of Government land (2,442,503 acres), 1,802,156 acres, or 73·8 per cent., are cultivable; 141,291 acres are uncultivable; 4956 acres are under grass; and 387,715 acres are forest. Of the whole cultivable area, 1,378,659 acres were held for tillage in 1882–83, namely, 43,462 acres garden land, 14,895 acres rice land, and 1,320,302 acres under dry crops. In 1882–83 the number of holdings was 120,158, with an average area of 14½ acres.

Jodr (Sorghum vulgare) and *bájra* (Penicillaria spicata), the staple food of the people, occupy nearly half the cultivated area. Rice-fields are found only in the west, along river banks. In the south and east, cotton is grown, most of it of a local variety, but some brought from Hinganghát. Near Mahábaleshwar, several European vegetables, especially potatoes, grow freely, and to a great extent supply the Bombay market. In some of the hill villages, which have a heavy rainfall, *nachni* (Eleusine corocana) and *vari* (Panicum miliare) are raised on the *kumari* system, that is, by cutting down and burning brushwood and sowing the seeds in the ashes. This practice, formerly general, has, on account of the damage it does to the forests, been to a large extent prohibited.

In 1882–83, 1,113,911 acres were under cultivation, of which 39,757 were twice cropped. Grain crops, consisting chiefly of *jodr* and *bájra*,

occupied 898,206 acres; pulses, 159,211 acres; oil-seeds, 42,001 acres; fibres, 22,581 acres, of which 19,015 were under cotton; orchards, 3952 acres; drugs and narcotics, 8035 acres, of which 7523 acres were under tobacco; and miscellaneous crops, 19,682 acres.

In 1882–83, the prices of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs. were—wheat, 6s. 8½d.; rice (common), 7s. 4d.; *bájra*, 3s. 8½d.; *joár*, 3s. 4½d.; *dál*, 5s. 3d.; salt, 6s. 5d.; flour, 7s. 6¼d.; *ghí*, £3, 1s. 9¾d. The wages per diem of a skilled labourer were 6d. to 2s.; of an unskilled labourer, 1½d. to 9d.; the hire per diem of cart, 1s. to 1s. 6d.; of bullocks, 6d. to 1s.

In 1882–83, the agricultural stock consisted of—bullocks, 243,424; cows, 141,139; buffaloes, 110,479; horses, 12,797; sheep and goats, 396,994; ploughs, 48,981; carts, 17,387.

Irrigation.—In 1883, Sátára District had six large irrigation works. These are the Revári canal on the Vásna, the Yerla canal, the Gondoli canal on the Mán, the Máyni reservoir on the Váng, the Chikhli canal on the Nándni, and the Kistna canal. The Revári canal is an old work restored, while the other five are new works. The Kistna canal, which has its source in the Sahyádri hills, has an unfailing supply of water, while the others depend on the local rainfall. The total irrigable area is 47,145 acres; in 1882–83, 5550 acres were watered. Besides these works, the Mhaswad lake is being built as a separate irrigation work on the lower Mán. In an average year the water-supply from this lake would suffice for an area of 30,000 acres. The work may be said to protect an area of 90,000 acres, one-third of which may be watered every year. The country under command of this canal stands in great need of water, as its rainfall is very uncertain.

Natural Calamities.—The uncertain and scanty rainfall makes eastern Sátára one of the parts of the Bombay Presidency most liable to suffer from failure of crops. The earliest recorded is the famous famine known as Durgá Deví, which, beginning in 1396, is said to have lasted twelve years, and to have spread over all India south of the Narbadá river. Whole Districts were emptied of their people; and for upwards of thirty years, a very scanty revenue was obtained from the territory between the Godávari and the Kistna rivers. In 1520, mainly owing to military disturbances, the crops in the Deccan were destroyed, and a famine followed. In 1629–30, severe famine raged throughout the Deccan. The rains failed for two years, causing a great loss of life. According to local tradition, the famine of 1791–92 was the severest ever known. It seems to have come after a series of bad years, when the evils of scanty rainfall were aggravated by disturbances and war. The native governments granted large remissions of revenue, the export of grain was forbidden, and a sale price was fixed. Rice was brought from Bengal to Bombay

The famine of 1802–03 ranks next in severity to that of 1791–92.

It was most felt in Khándesh, Ahmadnagar, Sholápur, Bijápur, and Dhárwár; but it also pressed severely on Belgáum, Sátára, Poona, Surat, and Cutch. This scarcity was mainly due to the ravages of Jaswant Ráo Holkar and his Pindárís, who destroyed the early crops as they were coming to maturity, and prevented the late crops being sown. This scarcity was followed by the failure of the late rains in 1803. The pressure was greatest in July and August 1804, and was so grievous that, according to tradition, men lived on human flesh. Grain is said to have been sold at a shilling the pound. In 1824–25, a failure of the early rains caused considerable and widespread scarcity. In 1862, a scanty fall of rain caused another scarcity.

The scanty and badly distributed rainfall of 1876 led to a failure of crops, and to distress amounting to famine over about one-half of the District. The east and south-east suffered most. In addition to this failure of the early rains, September and October passed with only a few showers, and but a small area of late crops was sown. With high prices, millet at seventeen instead of thirty-five pounds per rupee, and no demand for field work, the poorer classes fell into distress. The need for Government help began about the beginning of October. The long period of dry weather in July and August 1877 forced prices still higher, and caused much distress and suffering; but the plentiful and timely rainfall of September and October 1877 removed all cause of anxiety. By the close of November, the demand for special Government help had ceased. A special Census taken on the 19th May 1877, when famine pressure was general and severe, showed that of 46,235 labourers, 44,344 were on public and 1891 on civil works. As regards their occupation, 3062 were manufacturers or craftsmen, 24,611 were holders or under-holders of land, and 18,562 were labourers. The total cost of the famine was estimated at £118,137. In the eastern Subdivisions the number of cattle fell from 994,272 in 1876–77 to 775,393 in 1877–78. In 1878, the tillage area fell short of that in 1876 by about 18,400 acres.

Commerce and Manufactures.—Besides *kamblis* (blankets) and coarse cotton cloth, the chief exports of the District are grain, tobacco, oil-seeds, chillies, molasses, and a little raw cotton. The imports are—European piece-goods, hardware, paper, dried fruits, refined sugar, and salt. Weekly or bi-weekly markets are held in large villages and towns. Of these, Mhaswad is famous for its blankets, and Belandi for its cattle. Cotton is spun by women of the Kunbí, Mhár, and Máng castes. The yarn thus prepared is made up by Hindu weavers of the Sálí or Koshtí caste, and by Muhammadans, into cloth, tape, and ropes. Blankets (*kamblis*), which command a large sale, are woven by men of the Sangar caste. Sátára brass dishes and Shirol lamps are well known throughout the Deccan. Notwithstanding the great number of carpenters, wheels

and axles for cart-making have to be brought from Chiplún in Ratnágiri. Paper is still manufactured to some extent.

Means of Communication.—Of the several lines of road in Sátára, extending over a total length of 956 miles, the Poona and Belgáum road, crossing the District from north to south and bridged and metalled throughout, is the most important. One branch of this line breaks off at Karád, and runs along the valley of the Koina to Chiplún; while two other branches from Surúl and Sátára town, passing by Wái, go in the direction of Mahábaleshwar and then towards Mahád, a Konkan seaport. The old Poona road by the Salpa Pass is now almost abandoned. Of the other lines that cross the District from east to west, the chief are the Pandharpur road and the two Tásgáon lines, one from Sátára town and one from Karád. Along these and the Belgáum line, a large bullock-cart traffic passes. Within the limits of the District, the Sahyádri hills are crossed by thirteen roads or bullock tracks, of which the principal are the Kamatgi, Pasarni, Kumbhárli, Varándha, and Fitzgerald. Besides houses for the use of District officers when on tour, village offices, *cháudis*, and temples, there are 243 *dharmsálas* or rest-houses for the accommodation of travellers. The West Deccan line of the Southern Maráthá Railway, now under construction, will pass south and south-east through the centre of the District.

Administration.—The total revenue raised in 1882–83 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £227,403, showing on a population of 1,062,350 an incidence of 4s. 3d. per head. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £154,790, or 72·6 per cent. of the total amount. The other chief items are stamps, excise, forest, and local funds. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded £18,919. The 13 municipalities contain an aggregate population of 108,259 persons. Their aggregate receipts amounted in 1882–83 to £20,372, and the average incidence of taxation varied from 3d. to 10s. 5d. per head of population.

The administration of the District in revenue matter is, exclusive of the Superintendent of Malcolmpet, entrusted to a Collector and 6 Assistant Collectors, four of whom are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes there are 8 courts. Thirty-nine officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police force consisted in 1882 of 177 officers and 776 constables, giving 1 policeman to every 1113 persons of the population. The total cost was £15,120, equal to £3, 3s. per square mile of area and 3½d. per head of population. Besides the lock-up at each *mámlatdár's* office, there is a District jail at Sátára, and three subordinate jails at Karád, Khatáo, and Tásgáon. The number of convicts in the Sátára jail on the 31st December 1882 was 84, of whom 24 were

females; the number of convicts admitted during the year being 297.

Compared with 114 schools and 1168 pupils in 1865, there were in 1877, 219 schools with a roll-call of 10,435 names. By 1882-83, the number of schools had reached 248, with 14,498 names, and an average attendance of 10,875. The first girls' school was opened in the town of Sátára in 1865. In 1882-83, the number of girls' schools was 5, with an average attendance of 260. The Census Report of 1881 returned 13,719 boys and 182 girls as under instruction, besides 27,678 males and 209 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. Three vernacular papers, two of which have occasional English contributions, were published in Sátára District in 1882-83.

Medical Aspects.—According to the height and distance from the sea, the climate varies in different parts of the District. In the east, especially in the months of April and May, the heat is considerable. But near the Gháts it is much more moderate, being tempered by the sea-breeze. Again, while few parts of Western India have a heavier and more continuous rainfall than the western slope of the Sahyádri hills, in some of the eastern Sub-divisions the supply is very scanty. The average annual rainfall at Mahábaleshwar is more than 252·8 inches, while in Sátára town it is only 40 inches, and in some places farther east it is less than 12. The west of the District draws almost its whole rain supply from the south-west monsoon, between June and October. Some of the eastern Sub-divisions, however, have a share in the north-east monsoon, and rain falls there in November and December. The May or 'mango showers,' as they are called, also influence the cultivator's prospects.

Seven dispensaries and 2 civil hospitals, one at Sátára and the other at Malcolmpet, afforded medical relief to 477 in-door and 41,499 out-door patients in 1882-83, and 32,422 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a death-rate of 22·6 per thousand in 1882-83. [For further information regarding Sátára District, see the *Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency*, published under Government orders, and compiled by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S., vol. xix., Sátára District (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1885). Also the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Government from 1880 to 1884.]

Sátára.—Chief town of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 41′ 25″ N., and long. 74° 2′ 10″ E., 56 miles south of Poona, near the confluence of the Kistna and the Yena, in the highlands of the Deccan, where the country generally inclines towards the east. The strong fort of Sátára, midway between the Kistna and the Tornaghát, is perched on the summit of a small, steep, rocky hill. It takes its name from the seventeen (*sátára*) walls,

towers, and gates which it possessed, or is supposed to have possessed. At the close of the war with the Peshwá, in 1818, it fell, after a short resistance, into the hands of the British, who restored it with the adjacent territory to the representative of Sivají's line, who, during the Peshwá's ascendency, had lived there as a State prisoner under the title of the Rájá of Sátára. In 1848, on the death of the last Rájá, the principality reverted to the British. The town of Sátára, lying at the foot of the hill fortress, consisted in 1820 of one long street of tiled houses, built partly of stone and partly of brick. After the breaking up of the Rájá's court, the population considerably decreased. But Sátára is still a large place, ranking as the twelfth city in the Bombay Presidency, with a population in 1881 of 28,601 in the town, and 427 in the military lines; total, 29,028, namely, males 14,892, and females 14,136. Hindus numbered 24,525; Muhammadans, 3596; Jains, 284; Christians, 527; Pársís, 48; and 'others,' 48. Besides the courts of the Sub-divisional and District revenue officers, it possesses a District Judge's Court and a High School. The Rájá's palace is plain and commonplace. Sátára has few large or ornamental buildings, but the town is clean and the streets broad. On account of its high position, 2320 feet above sea-level, and its exposure to the sea-breeze, the climate is unusually pleasant. The water-supply is drawn by pipes from a reservoir on the hill of Enteshwar, and from three masonry ponds in the valley of Krishneshwar.

Sátára Jágírs, The.—Group of Native States in the Bombay Presidency, under the Political Superintendence of the Collectors of Sátára and Sholápur, comprising—Akalkot, Aundh, Bhor, Daphlapur, Jath, and Phaltan. Of these Bhor lies in the north-west of Sátára District, Phaltan in the north, Aundh in the east, Jath in the extreme south-east, Daphlapur also in the south-east, and Akalkot in the south-east of Sholápur. Total area, 3821 square miles. Revenue, about £157,800. The Sátára *jágírs* were feudatory to the Rájá of Sátára, and became tributaries to the British Government on the lapse of that State in 1849. The *jágírdárs* retained all their former rights and privileges, with the exception of the power of life and death, and of adjudicating upon serious criminal cases. Their administration is now conducted on the principles of British law. Criminal and civil justice is administered by the chiefs themselves, with the aid of subordinate courts. In civil suits, special appeals from the decisions of *jágírdárs* lie to the Political Agents. In criminal cases, heinous offences requiring capital punishment or transportation for life are tried by the Political Agents, each assisted by two assessors, the preliminary proceedings being conducted by the *jágírdárs.* Criminal appeals from their decisions also lie to the Political Agents. The Collector of Sátára is in charge of the four *jágírs*

of AUNDH, BHOR, JATH, and PHALTAN, and of the little cluster of six villages (rent-roll of £1300; area, 40 square miles; population (1881) 6007; revenue, £900) belonging to the Bhai Sáhab of Daphlapur, who exercises the powers of a magistrate of the first class, and in civil suits those of a subordinate judge. AKALKOT is under the Collector of Sholápur. Population (1881) of the Sátára *jágírs*, 376,727, namely, males 190,497, and females 186,230, occupying 54,139 houses, in 3 towns and 838 villages. Hindus numbered 354,242; Muhammadans, 16,747; and 'others,' 5738.

Satásgarh (or '*Sixty Towers*').—Ruin in PANDUAH TOWN, Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* PANDUAH.

Sátgáon (or *Saptagrám*, 'The Seven Villages,' so called from seven sages who gave their names to the same number of villages).—Ruined town in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38′ 20″ N., long. 88° 25′ 10″ E. The mercantile capital of Bengal from the Puránic age until the foundation of HUGLI by the Portuguese. The decay of this port dates from the silting up of the channel of the SARASWATI, and nothing now remains to indicate its former grandeur except a ruined mosque; the modern village consists of a few miserable huts. Sátgáon is said to have been one of the resting-places of Bhágírathí. De Barros writes that it was 'less frequented than Chittagong, on account of the port not being so convenient for the entrance and departure of ships.' Purchas states it to be 'a fair citie for a citie of the Moores, and very plentiful, but sometimes subject to Patnaw.' In 1632, when Húglí was declared a royal port, all the public offices were withdrawn from Sátgáon, which rapidly fell into ruins. [For a full description of the ancient Sátgáon, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 307–310.]

Sathamba. — Petty State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 5360. Estimated revenue, £825, of which £40, 2s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £56, 2s. to Bálásinor, and £12, 14s. to Lunáwára. The chief, Thákur Ajáb Singh, is a Baria Kolí. The family holds no deed allowing adoption; in matters of succession it follows the rule of primogeniture. Area under cultivation, about 5000 acres. Staple crops, rice and *joár*. One school, with 74 pupils.

Sáthan.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh; pleasantly situated on high ground overlooking the Gúmti river, 40 miles north-west of Sultánpur town. Founded by Sáthan, a Bhar, and called after him. After the Mutiny of 1857, a certain Sháh Abdúl Latíf settled here as a 'missionary of pure religion,' and built a mosque, at which hundreds of the Sunní sect assemble every Friday. The '*ídgáh* of Sáthan is a place of considerable resort for the faithful at the 'Id festival. Population (1881) 1566, namely, Hindus 818, and Muhammadans 748, principally Sayyids and Shaikhs.

Sátkhirá.—Sub-division of Khulná District, Bengal, lying between 21° 38′ and 22° 56′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 56′ 30″ and 89° 4′ E. long. Area, 702 square miles; towns and villages, 1155; houses, 59,564. Population (1881) 434,766, namely, males 228,949, and females 205,817; proportion of males, 52·7 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 619; villages per square mile, 1·65; persons per village, 376; houses per square mile, 87; inmates per house, 7·3. This Sub-division consists of the 5 police circles of Sátkhirá, Kalároá, Mágurá, Kálíganj, and Asásuní. In 1884 it contained 2 civil and 4 criminal courts, a regular police of 92 men, and a rural force 810 strong.

Sátkhirá.—Chief town of Sátkhirá Sub-division, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated on the Betná river, in lat. 22° 42′ 35″ N., and long. 89° 7′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 8738, namely, Muhammadans 4391, and Hindus 4347. Municipal income (1883–84), £406, of which £376 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 10¼d. per head of the population. The town contains many Hindu temples; a large vernacular school or *pathsála*, entirely supported by the *zamíndár;* and a Government dispensary, in charge of a native sub-assistant surgeon. Once a rural village, Sátkhirá is now an important town, a canal having been cut to the Ichámatí river; fair roads lead to the nearest marts of traffic, thus making it an emporium for the sale and shipment of the produce of the surrounding country. Large trade in sugar and rice.

Satlaj.—One of the five rivers of the Punjab.—*See* SUTLEJ.

Satlásna.—Native State in the Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 3281. The principal agricultural products are millet, wheat, Indian corn, and sugar-cane. The present (1882–83) chief is Thákur Hari Singh, a Hindu of the Parmár Kolí tribe. He is thirty-four years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £450; and pays a tribute of £168 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £73 to the Rájá of Edar. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There is 1 school in the State, with 43 pupils.

Satodar Wáori.—Petty State in the Hállár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 4 villages, with 4 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 13 square miles. Population (1881) 2447. Estimated revenue, £1200; of which £146, 12s. is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £46, 2s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sátpáti.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 6 miles north of Máhim. One of the ports of the Tárápur Customs Division. Average annual value of trade for five years ending

1881-82—imports £1831, and exports £6155. The trade in 1881-82 was—imports £2950, and exports £6882.

Sátpura.—Hill range or table-land, which begins at AMARKANTAK and extends westward across the Central Provinces, and beyond them nearly to the western coast. The name was formerly restricted to that portion of the range which divides the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Tápti valleys; while sometimes the term Vindhya has been extended to include the Sátpuras, together with the parallel range on the northern side of the Narbadá, in one general appellation for the great chain which stretches across Central India and separates Hindustán proper from the Deccan. Geologically, however, the Vindhyan sandstones are entirely distinct from the Mahádeo and other groups which enter into the composition of the Sátpuras; and geographically, the line of demarcation between the two ranges is defined by the well-marked valley of a great river.

Taking Amarkantak as the eastern boundary, the Sátpuras stretch from east to west for about 600 miles, while their greatest breadth from north to south exceeds 100 miles. The range forms a rough triangle. From Amarkantak, 3328 feet above sea-level, an outer ridge runs south-west for about 100 miles to the Saletekri Hills in Bhandárá District. This ridge, known as the MAIKAL range, constitutes the base of the triangle. Starting from this base, the Sátpura range shrinks, as it proceeds westward, from a broad table-land to two parallel dorsal ridges, bounding on either side the valley of the Tápti. Just east of Asírgarh occurs a break, through which the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Bombay and Khándesh to Jabalpur is carried; and ASIRGARH marks the point where the Sátpuras leave the Central Provinces.

Following the range from east to west, the main features which it presents may be thus described. In Mandlá District, the slope is mainly northward towards the Narbadá. There are four principal upland valleys, each sending down a feeder to that river. The eastern valleys are higher than those to the west. Between the Kharmer and Burhner rivers, the country consists of a rugged mass of bare and lofty mountains hurled together by volcanic action. Their general formation is basaltic, intermixed with laterite, with which the higher peaks are capped. The Chaurádádar plateau, 3300 feet high, has an area of 6 square miles.

In Seoní District, the plateaux of Seoní and Lakhnádon are from 1800 to 2220 feet high. The slope of the country is from north to south; and in the lowest watershed, the Waingangá river rises. In Chhindwárá, also, the country slopes southwards. The principal upland valleys are those of the Pench and Kolbirá. The general elevation is about 2200 feet, but the plateau of Motúr attains a height of 3500 feet. In Betúl, the slope to the south continues; and the Tápti rises

and flows in a deep and narrow gorge. In the south-west corner of the District, the hill of Khámlá rises 3700 feet high. To the north of Betúl, spurs from the Sátpuras occupy a considerable portion of Hoshangábád. Dhúpgarh (4454 feet) is the highest point; and the picturesque plateau of Pachmarhí, 3481 feet above sea-level, covers an area of 12 square miles.

South of Hoshangábád, sandstone and metamorphic rocks emerge, and form a great portion of the hills of the Betúl and Pachmarhí country. To the east, trap predominates. In Nimár District, the wild and barren range which parts the valleys of the Tápti and the Narbadá has an average width of 15 miles. On its highest point stands the fortress of Asírgarh.

West of Asírgarh, the Sátpura hills form a broad belt of mountain land, stretching in a wall-like line along the north bank of the Tápti. They rise from the first range of hills, ridge behind ridge, to the central crest about 2000 feet high, and then slope gently to the Narbadá. The Bombay-Agra trunk road crosses the Sátpuras farther west. Among the peaks that rise from 3000 to 3800 feet above sea-level, the grandest is TURANMAL, a long, rather narrow table-land 3300 feet above the sea, and about 16 square miles in area. West of Turanmál, the mountain land presents, both towards the Tápti and the Narbadá, a wall-like appearance.

Sátpura.—State forest lying along the southern slopes of the Sátpura hills, in Seoní, Chhindwárá and Nágpur Districts, Central Provinces. Area, about 1000 square miles. *Sáj* forms the chief growth in the eastern, and teak in the western portion. The proximity of Kámthi (Kamptee) and Nágpur has caused the exhaustion of all but young timber; but what remains is now strictly preserved, and plantation experiments have been conducted at Sukáta and Sítájhari.

Satrikh.—*Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nawábganj and Partábgarh, on the east by Siddhaur, on the south by Haidargarh, and on the west by Dewa. Area, 46 square miles, or 29,404 acres, of which 19,318 acres are cultivated. Population (1881) 22,570, namely, males 11,492, and females 11,078. Number of houses, 4238. Of the 42 villages comprising the *parganá*, 17 are held in *tálukdári*, 20 in *zamíndári*, and 5 in *pattidári* tenure. Government land revenue, £4796.

Satrikh.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Satrikh *parganá;* situated 5 miles south-east of Bara Banki town, in lat. 26° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 14′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 4090, namely, Hindus 2458, and Muhammadans 1632. Number of houses, 843. The town was originally founded by a Hindu Rájá named Sabtrikh, but was captured by the Muhammadans under Sálár Sahu, a brother-in-law of Mahmúd of Ghazní. Sálár Sahu died here, and

an annual fair is held at his shrine, attended by about 18,000 persons.

Satrunjaya (*Shetrunja*).—Sacred hill near Pálitána, in the Gohelwar *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* PALITANA TOWN.

Sattanapalli.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 714 square miles. Population (1881) 110,290, namely, males 55,695, and females 54,595, occupying 18,752 houses in 169 villages. Hindus number 94,862; Muhammadans, 9086; and Christians, 6342. A wide extent of black soil is found in the *táluk*, producing heavy crops of cotton. In the black soil, gneissic rock protrudes here and there. In this *táluk* are the fortresses of BELLAMKONDA and Dharanikota near AMRAVATI town. Sattanapalli contained in 1883—criminal courts, 2; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 53 men. Land revenue, £36,790. Head-quarters at Krossúr; population (1881) 1912, occupying 327 houses.

Sattankulam.—Town in Tenkarai *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5116, occupying 1261 houses. Hindus number 3697; Muhammadans, 392; Christians, 1019; and 'others,' 8. Important agricultural town, with wealthy inhabitants engaged in money-lending.

Sátúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 548 square miles. Population (1881) 150,886, namely, males 73,382, and females 77,504, occupying 31,945 houses, in 2 towns and 212 villages. Hindus number 145,425; Muhammadans, 3052; Christians, 2409. The northern and eastern villages are part of the black cotton plain of Tinnevelli District; the southern and south-western consist of red loam and sand. The latter or red soil portion is considerably larger in area than the former. Cotton is the staple produce; and *kambu* (Pennisetum typhoideum) and gram are also grown, as well as tobacco, chillies, and vegetables. About one-fifth of the *táluk* is *inám*, one-fourth *zamíndárí*, and the remainder Government. The South Indian Railway main line traverses the *táluk*. In 1883, Sátúr contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 76 men. Land revenue, £21,773.

Sátúr.—Village in Sátúr *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated on the north bank of Vaipár river, and a station on the South Indian Railway main line, 55 miles north of Tinnevelli town. Head-quarters of the *tahsíldár* of Sátúr *táluk*; the sub-magistrate is stationed at VIRUDUPATTI. Population (1881) 2168, namely, Hindus, 1861; Muhammadans, 155; and Christians, 152. Number of houses, 428. Post-office.

Satyamangalam.—*Táluk* of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 1176 square miles. Population (1881) 151,313, namely,

males 73,762, and females 77,551, occupying 32,489 houses, in 1 town and 184 villages. Hindus number 146,753; Muhammadans, 2724; Christians, 1831; and 'others,' 5. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 99 men. Land revenue, £31,537.

Satyamangalam.—Town in Satyamangalam *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 30′ 20″ N., long. 77° 17′ 15″ E. Population (1881) 3210, inhabiting 634 houses. Hindus number 2899; Muhammadans, 253; Christians, 55; and 'others,' 3. The fort is situated on the Bhavání river, and was built by the Náiks of Madura. It was taken by the Mysore generals in 1657. Owing to its situation, Satyamangalam was of considerable strategic importance in our wars with Haidar Alí and Tipú. Colonel Wood took the place in 1768, but Haidar recaptured it the following year. In 1790, Colonel Floyd occupied Satyamangalam, and between the fort and Danayakkankottai fought a severe battle with Tipú in the same year, falling back upon Meadow's column, but effecting his retreat with such skill as almost to convert it into a victory. There are two *ghát* roads to the uplands from Satyamangalam—the Gazzalhátti and the Hassanúr roads. The latter is the most frequented route into Mysore.

Sauda.—Sub-division and town, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SAVDA.

Saugor.—District, Sub-division, and Town, in the Central Provinces. —*See* SAGAR.

Saugor.—Island at the mouth of the Húglí river, Bengal.—*See* SAGAR.

Saundatti.—Chief town of the Parasgarh Sub-division of Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency; situated 41 miles east by south of Belgáum town, in lat. 15° 45′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 9′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 7133, namely, Hindus, 6314; Muhammadans, 690; and Jains, 129. About 2 miles due south of Saundatti are the ruins of an extensive hill fort called Parasgarh, from which the whole Sub-division derives its name. Sub-judge's court, two schools, post-office, and dispensary. About 5½ miles north-west of Saundatti, a large Hindu fair in honour of the goddess Yellamma is held twice a year about the full moon in April or May and in November or December. On each occasion, from 15,000 to 20,000 persons attend. Municipal income (1883–84), £296; incidence of taxation, 9½d. per head. The water-supply is poor. Weekly market on Wednesdays, when cloth, cotton, oil, salt, and spices are sold.

Saunt Jot.—Village in Khága *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 50′ 46″ N., and long. 81° 5′ 9″ E. Population (1881) 2216; prevailing caste, Chamárs.

Sauráth.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; 8 miles west of Madhubaní. Famous for the large *melá* (religious fair) which takes

place annually in June or July, when vast numbers of Bráhmans assemble to settle their children's marriages. Saurá th contains a temple of Mahádeo, built about 1845 by the Darbhangah Rájá; close to this building is a tank, shaded by a fine mango grove.

Saúsar.—Southern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces. Area 1088 square miles, with 407 towns and villages, and 22,668 houses. Population (1881) 110,809, namely, males 55,422, and females 55,387. Average density of the population, 102 persons per square mile. The male and female adult agriculturists number 46,029, or 41·54 per cent. of the total population; average area available for each adult cultivator, 9 acres. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 344 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving 744 square miles for Government assessment, of which 373 square miles are cultivated, 75 square miles cultivable, and 296 square miles uncultivable waste. Amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £10,830, or an average of 10¾d. per cultivated acre; rental paid by cultivators, £16,180, or an average of 1s. 4⅝d. per cultivated acre. In 1884 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, with 2 police stations (*thánás*) and 5 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 83 men; *chaukidárs* or village watch, 392.

Saúsar.—Town and municipality in Chhindwárá District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Saúsar *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 21° 40′ N., and long. 78° 50′ E., 34 miles south of Chhindwárá town, on the main road to Nágpur. Population (1881) 4311, chiefly agriculturists, namely, Hindus, 3747; Kabírpanthís, 174; Muhammadans, 275; Jains, 7; and non-Hindu aborigines, 108. Municipal income (1882–83), £119, of which £82 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 4½d. per head. Saúsar has a Government school, and a small fort; the proprietor is the representative of the Gond dynasty of Deogarh. *Sarái*, or native rest-house.

Sáváli.—Town in Baroda State (Gáekwár's territory), Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 6275. Sáváli is the trade centre of a wide circle of villages. In the immediate neighbourhood are wide tanks, shady trees, and fruitful fields; at no great distance is the wild Mehwasi country of ravines and jungles bordering the Mahi. At one of the corners of the beautiful Sáváli tank stand two temples which commemorate the names of Damáji and his father Piláji. The treacherous murder, the invasion of Abhi Singh, the hasty funeral of the founder of the Gáekwár house, mark a crisis in the history of the Maráthá conquest, and give something of historic dignity to the unpretending temple of Piláji. Custom-house, post and police offices, and dispensary.

Savandrúg.—Hill fort in Bangalore District, Mysore State, locally known as the Magadi Hill, 4024 feet above sea-level. Lat. 12° 55′ N., long. 77° 21′ E. It consists of an enormous mass of granite, standing

on a base 8 miles in circumference. The summit is divided by a chasm into two peaks—the *Kari* or black, and the *Bili* or white—each of which is abundantly supplied with water. The earliest fortifications are said to have been erected in 1543, by Sámanta Ráya, who gave the hill his own name of Sámanta-durga. The present appellation dates from the end of the 16th century, when Immadi Kempe Gauda of Bangalore established his stronghold here, in which his family maintained themselves until 1728. The fort was captured in that year by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore, from whom it passed into the hands of Haidar Alí. In 1791, Savandrúg was stormed by a British army commanded by Lord Cornwallis. On December 10, a force under Colonel Stuart encamped within 3 miles of the place; and after great difficulties in bringing up the battering train, the bombardment was opened on the 20th, and in three days the breach was declared practicable. The assault was delivered on the following day under the eyes of Lord Cornwallis. The whole line of fortifications was carried within an hour, without the loss of a single life on the British side.

Savanúr (*Sawanúr*).—Native State, situated within Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; lying between 14° 56′ 45″ and 15° 1′ 45″ N. lat., and between 75° 21′ 45″ and 75° 25′ E. long. Area, 70 square miles. Population (1872) 17,288; (1881) 14,763, namely, males 7347, and females 7416, occupying 2646 houses, in 1 town and 23 villages. Hindus number 10,866; Muhammadans, 3859; and 'others,' 38. The principal products are cotton, *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), rice, *kulthi* (Dolichos biflorus), *múng* (Phaseolus Mungo), cocoa-nut, castor-oil, *tur* (Cajanus indicus), *pán* (Piper Betle), wheat, gram, plantains, and sugar-cane. Of the total area of 44,660 acres, 40,055 are cultivable; area under actual cultivation in 1883–84, 31,707 acres. Coarse cloths, such as *sarís*, *dholis*, etc., are manufactured to a small extent; and one loom for weaving silk cloths (*pitambar*) is worked. Some trade in grain. The betel-leaf grown in the Savanúr gardens is celebrated for its superior quality. Within the State there is only one forest, at Mulakari. Before Savanúr came under Tipú Sultán (1785), there was a mint at which gold coins were struck called Savanúr Huns, bearing the name of the reigning Nawáb and valued at 6s. 8d.

The reigning family are Muhammadans of Afghán descent. Abdúl Raúf Khán, the founder of the family, obtained in 1680 from the Emperor Aurangzeb the grant of the *jágír* of Bankápur, Torgal, and Azímnagar, with a command of 7000 horse. The family, though connected by marriage with Tipú Sultán, was entirely stript of its possessions by him; and the Nawáb sought the protection of the Peshwá, from whom he received a pension of £4800 per annum. This was subsequently converted into a grant of territory, yielding an equal amount of revenue, through the intervention of General Wellesley.

The management of the State, which had since 1868 been under the care of the Collector of Dhárwár as Political Agent, was handed over in 1883 to Nawáb Abdúl Dalíl Khán, a young man of great promise, who had been carefully educated at Rájárám College, Kolhápur. The young chief died in 1884. Strength of police, 66 men; cost of maintaining the force, £493. Criminal courts, 2; schools, 7. Average annual rainfall, 27·3 inches.

Savanúr.—Chief town of Savanúr State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 14° 58′ N., long. 75° 23′ 5″ E.; situated 40 miles south-east of Dhárwár. Population (1881) 7640, namely, Hindus, 4582; Muhammadans, 3031; and Jains, 27. The town is nearly circular, and covers an area of three-quarters of a square mile. It is enclosed by a ditch with eight gates, three of which are ruined. Between 1868 and 1876 the town was greatly improved, the roads widened and metalled, and many old wells and ponds repaired. Income of municipality in 1883–84, £629. Three schools with 218 pupils, of whom 60 were girls. Annual fair.

Savari (*Seberi*, *Severi*). — River in Madras Presidency. — *See* SABARI.

Sávda.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 553 square miles. Population (1872) 124,519; (1881) 141,745, namely, males 71,720, and females 70,025, occupying 24,767 houses, in 4 towns and 178 villages. Hindus number 123,395; Muhammadans, 16,033; and 'others,' 2317. Sávda lies in the north-east of Khándesh District, and includes the petty divisions of Yával and Ráveri. The Sub-division is a well-wooded, unbroken plain, from which, along the north, the Sátpuras rise in a wall-like line. Though highly cultivated and thickly peopled, it is not on the whole well provided with water, excepting in the villages along the Tápti and the Súki. Despite extreme heat from March to June, the climate is healthy. The prevailing soil is a black alluvial clay from four to five feet deep, resting on a subsoil of soft yellowish clay (*mán*). This black soil is best in the centre, and grows poorer towards the river on the south and the hills on the north. In 1854–55, the year of settlement, 12,970 holdings or *khátás* were recorded with an average area of 16·3 acres, paying an average assessment of £1, 9s. 6d. In 1878–79, the area under actual cultivation was 217,874 acres. Cereals and millets occupied 125,846 acres; pulses, 11,902 acres; oil-seeds, 18,925 acres; fibres, 54,421 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 6780 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 5 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 119 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 691. Land revenue, £30,844.

Sávda.—Chief town of the Sávda Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 285 miles north-east of Bombay city; situated in lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 56′ E. Population (1881) 8642, namely, Hindus,

7061; Muhammadans, 1324; Jains, 236; Christians, 6; Pársís, 2; and 'others,' 13. Sávda was finally ceded by the Nizám to the Peshwá in 1763, and was shortly afterwards bestowed on Sardár Ráste, whose daughter was given in marriage to the Peshwá. In 1852, in connection with the introduction of the revenue survey, a serious disturbance occurred at Sávda. From 10,000 to 15,000 malcontents gathered, and were not dispersed till a detachment of troops arrived and seized 59 of the ringleaders. A municipality has recently been established and had an income in 1883–84 of £233; incidence of taxation, 5¼d. per head. Chief trade, cotton, gram, linseed, and wheat. Post-office; three schools. At the weekly market, valuable Nimár and Berar cattle are offered for sale.

Sávitri (*Savatri*). — River of Bombay Presidency, rising on the western declivity of the Mahábaleshwar range, Sátára District, in lat. 18° 28′ N., and long. 73° 30′ E. Descending the mountain side in a narrow rocky channel, it passes the towns of Mhar and Dásgáon through Southern Kolába, and reaches Ratnágiri District at Mahápral. After a total course of about 50 miles, it falls into the Arabian Sea at Bánkot in lat. 17° 58′ N., and long. 73° 3′ E. The mouth of the Sávitri is formed by bluff hills, jutting out on either side of the creek into the sea. Fort Victoria or Bánkot crowns the southern headland. Bánkot is only a fair-weather port. The passage is marked by buoys and beacons, but a rather formidable sand-bar, with a depth of 2½ fathoms at low water, lies across the entrance to the anchorage. The river is navigable, for native craft drawing 7 feet of water, 36 miles to the town of Mhar in Kolába District; for vessels of 16 feet, up to Mahápral in Ratnágiri, about 24 miles from the mouth. Between Bánkot and Mahápral there is no difficulty; large craft work up on a single tide. Between Mahápral and Mhar the river narrows; shoals and rocky ledges and reefs are numerous; and even for small craft, navigation is both difficult and dangerous. Every year within these limits the creek is silting and becoming more difficult. After the first two or three miles, the scenery of the creek is particularly striking. The hills rising boldly from the water's edge to a considerable height are, especially on the northern bank, clad with thick forests, which on some of the reaches surround the water on all sides, giving the creek the appearance of a mountain lake. Farther inland, the hills draw back, giving place to broad belts of lowland, divided from the water by mangrove swamps. Before Mhar is reached, the banks have become flat and uninteresting.

Sáwantwári. — Native State in Bombay Presidency, under the charge of a Political Superintendent; situated about 200 miles south of Bombay city, between 15° 38′ 30″ and 16° 14′ N. lat., and between 73° 37′ and 74° 23′ E. long. Area, about 900 square miles. Population (1872) 190,814, and (1881) 174,433. The State is bounded on the

north and west by the British District of Ratnágiri, on the east by the Sahyádri Hills, and on the south by the Portuguese territory of Goa. The general aspect of the country is strikingly picturesque. From the sea-coast to the foot of the Sahyádri hills, a distance varying from 20 to 25 miles, are densely wooded hills, and in the valleys, gardens and groves of cocoa-nut and areca-nut palms. The chief streams are the Kárli on the north, and the Terekhol on the south, which open out into creeks. Both are navigable for small native craft; the Terekhol for about 15, and the Kárli for about 14 miles. The climate is humid and relaxing, with a heavy rainfall, averaging for the 32 years ending 1879, 143 inches, varying from 222 inches in 1874 to 93 inches in 1855. April is the hottest month in the year; but in May (though the temperature is slightly higher) a strong sea-breeze, the precursor of the south-west monsoon, tempers the heat.

The State is rich in forests of teak, especially near the Sahyádri Hills, blackwood, *ain* (Terminalia tomentosa), *kher* (Acacia Catechu), *jámba* (Xylia dolabriformis). Nearer the sea, the more important trees are the jackwood, mango, and *bhirand* (Garcinia indica), whose fruit yields *kokam* oil. The principal fruits are mangoes and plantains, which are abundant and of excellent quality, citrons, limes, and jack fruit. Cocoa-nuts and cashew-nuts are very plentiful. The staple agricultural produce is rice; but the quantity grown is not sufficient for the wants of the people, and a good deal is imported. Excepting rice, none but the coarsest grains and pulses are raised. A species of oil-seed, *tíl* (Sesamum indicum), hemp, and black and red pepper, are also grown, but neither cotton nor tobacco. Both soil and climate are against the cultivation of wheat and other superior grains. For these, the people have to look to the country east of the Sahyádri Hills, whence during the fair season, from October to June, large supplies come. Coffee has been grown with success, and it is believed that the spurs from the Sahyádri range are suited to its cultivation on a large scale. Iron-ore of fair quality is found in the neighbourhood of the Rámghát, in the Sahyádri range. The Akeri stone, a slate-coloured talc-schist, extremely hard, compact, and heavy, is unrivalled for building purposes. Laterite is quarried in many places. Talc of inferior quality is found at Kudáwal. The forests and wooded slopes of Sahyádri hills contain large numbers of tigers, leopards, bison, *sámbhar* deer, etc. In 1883-84, locusts visited the State for the sixth successive year, but in smaller numbers than on previous occasions. About 12 millions of locusts were destroyed.

Population.—Population (1881) 174,433, namely, males 86,061, and females 88,372, occupying 30,444 houses, in 1 town and 225 villages. Hindus number 166,080; Muhammadans, 3970; Christians, 4213; and 'others,' 170. The Christians are all Roman Catholics, and consist

of Indo-Portuguese and natives who have embraced Christianity. The common language of the people is a dialect of Maráthí, known as Kurauli. The sturdy and easily managed Maráthás and Mhars of this State are favourite recruits for the Bombay Native Infantry regiments. The inhabitants generally are poor, and are engaged chiefly in agriculture.

Manufactures.—Salt of an inferior kind was formerly manufactured, but the salt pans have recently been abolished. The principal industries of the State consist of gold and silver embroidery work on both leather and cloth; fans, baskets, and boxes of *khas-khas* grass, ornamented with gold thread and beetles' wings; lacquered toys, and playing cards; and elegant drawing-room ornaments carved from the horn of the buffalo and bison. Recently a pottery establishment for the manufacture of tiles has been opened. The pottery is now becoming widely known, and it is expected that a ready sale will be found for the tiles not required by the State.

Means of Communication.—There are no railways; but an excellent trunk road has recently been constructed from the seaport of Vengurla, which, passing through the State, leads by an easy gradient over the Sahyádri Hills to Belgáum and the Southern Maráthá Country. The other chief lines of communication with the Deccan are the Rámghát, the Talkatghát, and the Phondághát.

Trade.—Within the limits of the State there is not much local trade; but during the fair season, a considerable quantity of cotton, hemp, and grain from the rich Districts of the Southern Maráthá Country passes coastwards, especially to the port of Vengurla. Compared with the exports, the imports at Vengurla are small.

History.—Early inscriptions show that from the 6th to the 8th centuries the Chálukyas ruled over Sáwantwári. In the 10th century, the rulers were Yádavs. In the 13th century (1261), the Chálukyas were again in power. At the close of the 14th century (1391), Sáwantwári was under an officer of the Vijayanagar dynasty. About the middle of the 15th century it formed part of a powerful Bráhman dynasty. On the establishment of the Bijápur power at the close of the 15th century, Sáwantwári became part of the territory of these kings. About three hundred years ago (1554), one Mang Sáwant of the Bhonsla family revolted from Bijápur, and making Hodwára, a small village 9 miles from Wári, his head-quarters, defeated the troops sent against him, and maintained his independence during his lifetime. After his death, his successors again became feudatories of the Bijápur kings.

The chief who finally freed his country from the Muhammadan yoke was Khem Sáwant Bhonsla, who ruled from 1627 to 1640. He was succeeded by his son, Som Sáwant, who, after ruling for

eighteen months, was succeeded by his brother Lakham Sáwant. When the power of Sivají seemed in the ascendant (1650), Lakham Sáwant tendered him allegiance, and was confirmed as *Sar Desai* of the whole South Konkan. Dying in 1665, Lakham was succeeded by his brother Phond Sáwant, who, after ruling for ten years, was succeeded by his son, Khem Sáwant II. This chief was a contemporary of Sáhu, the grandson and second successor of Sivají, who assigned to him, conjointly with the chief of Kolába, half the revenue of the Sálsi Mahal. It was during the time of Khem's successor (1709–1737) that the Sáwantwári State first entered into relations with the British Government. A treaty was concluded between them against the notorious piratical chieftain, Kanojí Angria of Kolába.

The chief who ruled from 1755 to 1803, under the name of Khem Sáwant the Great, married in 1763 the daughter of Jáyají Sindhia; and consequently the title of Rái Bahádur was conferred upon him by the Emperor of Delhi. The chieftain of Kolhápur, envious of this honour, made a descent on Wári, and captured several hill fortresses, which were, however, through Sindhia's influence, subsequently restored. The rule of Khem Sáwant, who, not content with wars on land, also took to piracy, was one long contest against Kolhápur, the Peshwá, the Portuguese, and the British. Khem Sáwant died childless in 1803; and the contest for the succession was not decided till 1805, when Khem Sáwant's widow, Lakshmibái, adopted a child, Rámchandra Sáwant *alias* Bháu Sáhib. This child lived for three years, and was then (1805) strangled in bed. Phond Sáwant, a minor, was chosen to fill his place. During these years of disorder the ports swarmed with pirates. So severely did British commerce suffer, that in 1812 Phond Sáwant was forced to enter into a treaty, ceding the port of Vengurla to the British, and engaging to give up all his vessels of war. Soon after the conclusion of this treaty, Phond Sáwant died, and was succeeded by his son, Khem Sáwant, a child of eight years. This chief, when he came of age, proved unable to manage his estate, and after several revolutions and much disturbance, at last in 1838 agreed to make over the administration to the British Government. After this, rebellion twice broke out (in 1839 and 1844), but the disturbances were soon suppressed, and the country has since remained quiet.

The present (1884–85) chief is Sar Desái Raghunáth Ráo Sáwant Bhonsla, who is not yet considered fit to be entrusted with the duties of government. He has been educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £32,500, and maintains a military force of 436 men, styled the Sáwantwári Local Corps. The family of the chief

hold a title authorizing adoption, and in point of succession follow the rule of primogeniture. Strength of police, 155; cost in 1883–84, £2479. Daily average number of prisoners in jail, 51. Number of schools, 46; pupils, 2916.

Sáwantwári (*Wári* or *Sundarwári*, 'the Beautiful Garden').—Chief town of Sáwantwári Native State, Bombay Presidency.—*See* WARI.

Sawar.—Town in Ajmere District, Ajmere-Merwára, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 49′ N., long. 75° 21′ E. Distant 61 miles from Ajmere city. Chief town of Sawar *parganá*, and the residence of the *istimrardár*. Good water-supply. Post-office.

Sayána.—Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SIYANA.

Sáyla.—Native State in the Jháláwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, 222 square miles, containing 37 villages. Population (1872) 16,528; (1881) 16,991. The climate is hot and dry, but healthy. Cotton is the chief produce; the usual grains are also grown. Dyeing is the only industry of consequence. The nearest port is Dholera. Sáyla ranks officially as a 'third-class' State in Káthiáwár; and the ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present chief (1882–83), Thákur Wakhat Singhjí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste, is thirty-eight years old, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £7500, and pays a tribute of £1551, 2s. jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession; no *sanad* authorizing adoption is held. Military force (1882–83), 296 men. Five schools, with a total of 336 pupils.

Sáyla.—Chief town of Sáyla State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 22° 32′ N., and long. 71° 32′ E.; 18 miles south-west of Wadhwán, on the bank of a large tank called Mánasarowar, the excavation and building of which is popularly attributed to Sidhraj Jaiasingh, the celebrated sovereign of Anhilwára. Population (1881) 6488. Sáyla is famous for the temple of Rámchandra built by Lála Bhagat, a Baniyá saint who flourished in the beginning of the present century. Food is distributed daily to travellers, ascetics, and others. School, dispensary, and post-office.

Sayyidábad.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the fertile Doáb portion of the District —*See* SADABAD.

Sayyidnagar.—Old and decayed town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Urái 17 miles south-west, among the ravines of the Betwá. Population (1881) 3157. Large exports of cloth, dyed red and yellow; considerable manufacture and dyeing of cotton. Police station; school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Sayyidpur.—Town in Farídpur District, Bengal, formerly on the Barásiá river, but now two or three miles distant from the bank, in lat. 23° 25′ 10″ N., and long. 89° 43′ E. The town, which in 1876 contained an estimated population of 6324, mainly supported by river traffic, had in 1881 only 3269 inhabitants. There is still a considerable import trade in cotton, spices, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal utensils; but the rising mart of Boálmári, 2½ miles to the south and on the river bank, has attracted most of the business formerly carried on at Sayyidpur, which is now a decaying town. Fine *sitalpáti* mats are made in the neighbourhood. The town was formerly a municipality, now (1883) abolished.

Sayyidpur.—Western *tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the angle formed by the junction of the Gumti with the Ganges. The *tahsíl*, which consists chiefly of low alluvial soil, comprises the three *pargánás* of Sayyidpur-Bhitárí, Bahariábád, and Khánpur. Area, according to the latest official statement (1881), 249 square miles, of which 150 square miles were cultivated, 7 square miles cultivable, and 92 square miles uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 169,720, namely, males 85,603, and females 84,117; average density of population, 668 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion—Hindus, 157,178; Muhammadans, 12,529; and Christians, 13. Of the 554 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 448 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 77 between five hundred and one thousand; and 29 between one and five thousand. Total Government land revenue, £22,616, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £24,725. Rental paid by cultivators (including cesses), £39,341. In 1884, Sayyidpur Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 2 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 27 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 231.

Sayyidpur (*Sayyidpur-Bhitári*).—Village and ruins in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Sayyidpur *tahsíl*; lying in lat. 25° 32′ 5″ N., and long. 83° 15′ 40″ E., on the north bank of the Ganges, 20 miles west of Gházípur town. Population (1881) 2905. Government charitable dispensary. Chiefly noticeable for its numerous remains of Hindu or Buddhist origin, including a flat-roofed, richly carved, massive stone building, besides several fragments and entire figures of ancient sculpture. At Bhitri, 5 miles north-east of the town, stands a sandstone monolith, 28 feet in height, of which 5 or 6 feet are buried beneath the ground. It bears an inscription recording the achievements of five kings of the Gupta dynasty. A ruined bridge of three arches, built by the Muhammadans out of stones from Hindu structures, spans the river Gángi. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Sayyidpur.—*Táluk* of Rohri Sub-division, now included in Ghotki

táluk, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 168 square miles. The Census Report of 1881 returned Sayyidpur separate from Ghotki. Population, 19,049, namely, males 10,185, and females 8864. Hindus number 2552; Muhammadans, 15,747; Sikhs, 481; and non-Hindu aborigines, 269.—For other information *see* GHOTKI.

Sayyid Saráwán.—Village in Chail *tahsil*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, 15 miles west of Allahábád city, and 2 miles west of the Manauri station on the East Indian Railway; lat. 25° 28′ 48″ N., long. 81° 40′ 34″ E. Population (1881) 3066. The principal inhabitants are Shaikh *zamíndárs*. Good Anglo-vernacular school.

Sayyidwala. — Village and municipality in Gugaira *tahsíl*, in Montgomery District, Punjab, and head-quarters of a police circle; situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 73° 31′ E., on the north bank of the Rávi, 20 miles north-east of Gugaira. Population (1881) 3389, namely, Muhammadans, 1940; Hindus, 1356; and Sikhs, 93. Number of houses, 654. Municipal income (1883–84), £183; average incidence, 1s. 1d. per head. The town, which is of purely local importance, is connected by road with Chiniot. It is a collection of brick and mud built houses, surrounded by a wall with four gates, with a single well-paved street for a *bázár;* police station, school-house, and municipal committee house.

Sealkote. — District, *tahsíl*, and town in the Punjab. — *See* SIALKOT.

Seberi (*Severi*).—River in Madras Presidency.—*See* SABARI.

Secunderábád.—*Tahsíl* and town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SIKANDARABAD.

Secunderábád (*Sikandarábád*, or 'Alexander's Town').—British military cantonment in the Native State of Haidarábád or the Nizám's Dominions; situated 6 miles north-east of Haidarábád city, in lat. 17° 26′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 33′ E., at an elevation of 1830 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 74,124. Secunderábád cantonment, named after Nizám Sikandar Jah, is the largest military station in India, and forms the head-quarters of the Haidarábád Subsidiary Force, which constitutes a Division of the Madras army. The military force stationed here in September 1885 consisted of one regiment of European and another of Native Cavalry, one battery of Royal Horse Artillery, three batteries of Royal Artillery (field and garrison), two regiments of British and four of Native Infantry, with two companies of Sappers and Miners. An Ordnance Establishment has charge of the Arsenal, and there is also a large Commissariat Staff. This force is maintained by the British Government, under the terms of a treaty with the Nizám dated 21st May 1853, in lieu of certain contingent and auxiliary forces which had been previously raised by the Nizám to co-operate with the British army, but had proved inefficient. The cost of the force is

defrayed out of the revenues of certain Districts ceded by the Nizám under the treaty of May 1853, revised by a second treaty in 1860. (*See* HAIDARABAD STATE.)

Up to the year 1850, the cantonment of Secunderábád consisted of a line of barracks and huts, extending to a distance of 3 miles from east to west, with the artillery in the front and on the left flank, and the infantry on the right. Since that date, however, the cantonment boundaries have been extended as far as BOLARAM, covering a total area of 19 square miles, including many interspersed villages. New double-storied barracks have been erected for the European soldiers; and the quarters for the Native troops, which are situated at some distance, are also comfortably built.

The country for miles around undulates into hummocks, with outcrops of underlying rock, crossed from east to west by greenstone dikes. East of the cantonment are two large outbursts of granite; in the north-east is a granite hill known as Múl Alí, and near it another called Kadam Rasúl, from a legend that it bears an impress of Muhammad's foot. Shady trees line the roads of the cantonment, and near the European barracks and Native lines are clusters of date and palmyra palms. Otherwise the face of the country is bare, with but little depth of soil in the elevated parts. Cultivation is carried on in the dips and valleys, in several of which tanks have been constructed. The water-supply from wells is not abundant. Immediately to the south-west of the cantonment is a large artificial reservoir or tank, known as the Husain Ságar, about 3 miles in circumference.

The parade-ground is of great extent, upon which a force of seven or eight thousand troops can be manœuvred with ease. To the right are the public rooms. Close by is the cemetery. A little to the left of the rooms is the mud fort or battery containing some heavy pieces of ordnance. A detachment of artillery is stationed in the fort. A short distance from Secunderábád is the cantonment of Trimalgiri, containing an entrenched camp capable of accommodating all the Europeans in the neighbourhood.

The Haidarábád Subsidiary Force is not the sole military body in the neighbourhood. Adjoining the Secunderábád cantonment to the north is the Boláram cantonment, one of the stations of the Háidarábád Contingent under the immediate authority of the Nizám. The force stationed here consists of one regiment of cavalry, one of infantry, and a battery of artillery. Again, about 5 miles south of Secunderábád cantonment, are the lines of the Haidarábád Reformed Troops, also belonging to the Nizám, comprising artillery, cavalry, and infantry, under the command of a European officer. Altogether, within a space of 10 miles from north to south, about 8000 disciplined soldiers are cantoned.

Begampett and Bauenpilli are a short distance west of Secunderábád. The pioneers are stationed at the first place, and a Madras cavalry regiment at the latter. During the Mutiny of 1857, an unsuccessful attempt was made to tamper with the fidelity of the troops at Secunderábád. An attack on the British Residency was repulsed; and during the troubled times of 1857-58 much good service was rendered by both the Subsidiary Force and the Haidarábád Contingent.

In the rainy season, especially towards its close, the climate of Secunderábád is unhealthy, both for Europeans and natives. The rainfall varies greatly; during the thirty-nine years ending 1881 it averaged 27·7 inches. The prevalent diseases are fevers, dysentery, and rheumatism.

Seebsaugor. — District, Sub-division, and town in Assam. — *See* SIBSAGAR.

Segaulí. — Town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated 15 miles from Motíhárí, on the Bettiá road, in lat. 26° 46′ 41″ N., and long. 84° 47′ 51″ E. A military station, ordinarily occupied by a regiment of Native cavalry. An embankment protects the cantonment from inundation by the Sikhrená river, which flows a little distance to the north. In 1857, the main body of the 12th Regiment of Irregular Horse stationed here broke into open mutiny, and murdered their commanding officer; though a detachment did good service during the subsequent operations in Oudh.—(*See* Sir J. W. Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, vol. iii. pp. 102-107.)

Seghúr (Sígúr) Ghát.—Mountain pass in the Nílgiri Hills District, Madras Presidency, running down the north face of the hills from Mutinád to near the village of Seghúr. Lat. 11° 29′ to 11° 31′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 43′ 30″ to 76° 43′ 35″ E. The head of the pass is distant from Utakamand nearly five miles. The descent from the crest is about seven miles in length, but a little more than eight miles to the old bungalow at Seghúr. About half-way down is the village of Kalhatti, with its picturesque waterfall (170 feet) not far below. The pass, being practicable for laden carts and other wheeled conveyances, was the most frequented of all the Nílgiri *gháts*. At one time it was the favourite approach to the hills by the visitors from the northern parts of the Presidency and Madras. 'By this pass,' says Pharoah, 'communication is kept up with Bangalore, Madras, and all places to the northward; and the chief bulk of European supplies, heavy baggage, horse gram, rice, etc., comes to the settlement by it. It also affords the means of transit for the teak timber used on the hills in the form of rafters, planks, etc.; the road passes near the forests where the trees are cut.' The corrected spelling is Sígúr.

Sehi.—Village in Chháta *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 40′ 2″ N., and long. 77° 41′ 13″ E.,

8 miles south-east of Chháta, and 16 miles north of Muttra city. Population (1881) 2211. Two annual fairs are held here. The village is the property of the high priest of the great temple at Brindában.

Sehorá. — Village in Tirorá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2539, namely, Hindus, 2268; Muhammadans, 196; Jains, 5; and non-Hindu aborigines, 70.

Sehore.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India Agency; situated on the right bank of the Saven, in lat. 23° 11′ 55″ N., and long. 77° 7′ 14″ E., on the route from Ságar (Saugor) to Asírgarh, 132 miles south-west of the former place, and 152 north-east of the latter; distant from Bhopál city 22 miles south-west, and 90 miles from Mhow and Indore; from the latter place a good road is being constructed *viâ* Dewás and Sonkach. Sehore is the head-quarters of the Bhopál Political Agency and of the Bhopál Battalion, a local corps under the orders of the Government of India. Population (1881) of the town, 5206, namely, Hindus, 3000; Muhammadans, 2045; and 'others,' 161. Of the cantonment, 10,389, namely, males 5666, and females 4723. Hindus number 8055; Muhammadans, 2288; and 'others,' 46. Manufacture of printed muslins. Good *bázár*.

Sehwán. — Sub-division of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 25° 13′ and 26° 56′ N. lat., and between 67° 10′ and 68° 29′ E. long. Area, 5759 square miles. Population (1872) 162,836; (1881) 176,917. Bounded north by Mehar, a Sub-division of Shikárpur; east by the Indus; south by the Jerruck (Jhirak) Sub-division of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and west by the Khirthar and Pab Mountains. The administrative head-quarters are at KOTRI TOWN.

The Sub-division of Sehwán differs from the rest of Sind in being more hilly. It contains the only large lake in the Province, viz. the MANCHHAR, which, when fed by the waters of the Indus during the months of flood, attains a length of 20 miles and a breadth of 10 miles, covering a total area estimated at 180 square miles. The chief hills are the LAKI range, an offshoot from the Kirthar mountains; and the Jatil Hills. There are 37 Government canals in Sehwán, the principal being the WESTERN NARA, the ARAL, the PHITO, and the KARO. The Sub-division contains several hot springs. Game and fish of all kinds are abundant. The Government forests cover an area of 24,474 acres, and yielded in 1873–74 a revenue of £3185. The population of Sehwán in 1881 numbered 176,917, namely, males 96,426, and females 80,491, occupying 32,897 houses, in 6 towns and 210 villages. Hindus number 19,292; Muhammadans, 151,266; Sikhs, 5779; Christians, 465; non-Hindu aborigines, 87; Pársís, 21; Brahmos, 4; Jews, 3. The principal antiquities are the forts of SEHWAN and Rání-ka-kot. (*See* SANN.)

Agriculture.—The Dádú and Sehwán *táluks* contain perhaps the finest wheat lands in the whole of Sind. Much cultivation is carried on in the neighbourhood of the Manchhar Lake, after the subsidence of the annual inundation. The principal crops are wheat, *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), cotton, barley, pulse, oil-seeds, and vegetables. The prevailing tenure is *zamíndárí;* about one-twelfth of the whole area is held in *jágír*, or revenue-free. In 1882–83, the area assessed to land revenue was 205,392 acres; the area under actual cultivation being 189,200 acres. A large transit trade is carried on in wool, cotton, dried fruits, etc. (*See* KARACHI TOWN.) The local traffic consists of fish, mats, cloths, oil, *ghí*, and grain. The principal manufactures comprise carpets, coarse cotton cloth, rugs, and mats. The aggregate length of roads in the Sub-division is about 450 miles; and the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi (Indus Valley State) Railway passes through its entire length. The number of ferries is 20, nearly all of which are on the Indus.

Administration. — The total revenue of Sehwán Sub-division in 1881–82 amounted to £62,871, of which £58,244 was derived from imperial and £4627 from local sources. The land-tax, *abkári* (excise), and stamp duties formed the main items. Two subordinate civil courts, at Sehwán and Kotri. Criminal courts, 12; police circles (*thánás*), 39. Total number of police, 360, or 1 constable to every 491 of the population. Number of municipalities, 6, namely, Kotri, Sehwán, Johi, Bubak, Dádú, and Mánjhand. Aggregate municipal income (1883–84), £3039; incidence of taxation varying from 1s. $0\frac{3}{4}$d. to 2s. $7\frac{1}{2}$d. Subsidiary jails at Kohistán and Kotri. Number of Government schools (1873–74), 22, with 972 pupils.

Climate.—Average annual rainfall for 17 years ending 1881 registered at Sehwán, 7·51 inches. Prevalent diseases, fevers and cholera. Hospital at Kotri, dispensary at Sehwán.

Sehwán. — *Táluk* in Sehwán Sub-division, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 923 square miles. Population (1872) 54,292; (1881) 54,327, namely, males 29,082, and females 25,245, occupying 10,648 houses, in 2 towns and 74 villages. Hindus number 6762; Muhammadans, 46,186; Sikhs, 1324; Christians, 38; non-Hindu aborigines, 9; Pársís, 4; and Brahmos, 4. Area assessed to land revenue (1882–83), 75,598 acres; area under actual cultivation, 65,601 acres. The *táluk* contained in 1883, 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 9; regular police, 122 men. Revenue, £12,232.

Sehwán.—Chief town of Sehwán *táluk*, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 26° 26′ N., and long. 67° 54′ E., on the main road from Kotri to Shikárpur *viâ* Lárkhána, 84 miles north-north-west of Kotri, and 95 miles south-south-west of

Lárkhána; elevation above sea-level, 117 feet. The river Indus, which formerly flowed close to the town, has now quite deserted it. A few miles south of Sehwán, the Laki Hills terminate abruptly, forming a characteristic feature of this portion of the Sub-division. Sehwán is the head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and *táppádár*. A station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi (Indus Valley State) Railway, with a branch line from the station to the town. Population (1881) 4524. The Muhammadan inhabitants are for the most part engaged in fishing; the Hindus, in trade.

A large section of the people are professional mendicants, supported by the offerings of pilgrims at the shrine of Lál Sháhbáz. The tomb containing the remains of this saint is enclosed in a quadrangular edifice, covered with a dome and lantern, said to have been built in 1356 A.D., and having beautiful encaustic tiles with Arabic inscriptions. Mírzá Jáni, of the Tarkhan dynasty, built a still larger tomb to this saint, which was completed in 1639 A.D. The gate and balustrade are said to have been of hammered silver, the gift of Mír Karam Alí Khán Talpur, who also crowned the domes with silver spires. The chief object, however, of antiquarian interest in Sehwán is the fort, ascribed to Alexander the Great. This is an artificial mound 80 or 90 yards high, measuring round the summit 1500 by 800 feet, and surrounded by a broken wall. The mound is evidently an artificial structure, and the remains of several towers are visible. The fortifications are now in disrepair. Sehwán is undoubtedly a place of great antiquity. Tradition asserts that the town was in existence at the time of the first Muhammadan invasion of Sind by Muhammad Kásim Safiki, about 713 A.D.; and it is believed to be the same place which submitted to his arms after the conquest of Nerankot, the modern Haidarábád.

The public buildings of Sehwán are the Subordinate Civil Court, Government Anglo-vernacular school, dispensary, post-office, lock-up, Deputy Collector's and travellers' bungalow, and *dharmsála*. Municipal income in 1883–84, £690; incidence of taxation, 2s. 7½d. per head. The transit trade is mainly in wheat and rice; and the local commerce, in cloth and grain. The manufactures comprise carpets, coarse cloth, and pottery. The art of seal-engraving, which was formerly much practised, is now almost extinct.

Sejakpur.—Petty State in the Jháláwár *prant* or Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 4 villages, with 3 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 29 square miles. Population (1881) 1731. Estimated revenue, £532; of which £31, 13s. is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £11, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Selam.—District and town in Madras Presidency.—*See* SALEM.

Selere.—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SILLER.

Selu (*Sailu*).—Town in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 50′ N., and long. 78° 46′ E., on the Bor river, 11 miles north-east of Wardhá town, and close to the old high-road from Nágpur to Bombay. Population (1881) 2918, namely, Hindus, 2715; Kabírpanthís, 27; Muhammadans, 165; and non-Hindu aborigines, 11. Selu was an old Gond settlement; but the fort was built by a chief named Kandeli Sardár. It was the scene of a skirmish between Hazárí Bhonsla and the Pindárís. Chief manufacture, cotton cloth; in which, as well as in raw cotton, much business takes place at the market held every Tuesday. *Sarái* (native inn), police outpost, and vernacular school.

Sendamangalam.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SHENDAMANGALAM.

Sendgarsa.—High table-land in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal, overlooking the great central valley of the Rájmahál hills. Height, about 2000 feet.

Sendúrjana.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar, about 60 miles north-east of Ellichpur. Population (1881) 8501, namely, Hindus, 7546; Muhammadans, 782; Jains, 166; and 'others,' 7. A very fine well, which was built by a former *jágírdár*, and is said to have cost £2000, is about a mile distant. The principal trade of the large market held on Fridays is in turmeric, cotton, and opium. Government school and police outpost.

Senhátí.—Town in Khulná District, Bengal, 4 miles north of Khulná; contains the largest collection of houses in the District, and perhaps the most jungly place in it. Population above 2000, but not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The numerous tanks scattered over the town are filled with weeds and mud; and the roads, with one exception, wind through tangles of brushwood. Market-place, called Nimái Rái's *bázár*, with a temple to Kálí; one or two sugar refineries, the produce of which is exported chiefly to Calcutta. On the banks of the river Bhairab are two shrines—one dedicated to Sítalá, goddess of small-pox, and the other to Jwarnáráyan, god of fever.

Sentapilli (*Santapilly*).—Village and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHANTAPILLI.

Seodivadar.—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 shareholder or tribute-payer. Area, 1 square mile. Population (1881) 246. Estimated revenue, £97; of which £5, 4s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Seonáth (or *Seo*).—River rising in lat. 20° 30′ N., long. 80° 43′ E., in the Pánábáras Chiefship, in Chándá District, Central Provinces. After leaving a hilly tract, it flows through Nándgáon State and the richer parts of Ráipur District; then turning to the east, it forms for

some distance the boundary between Ráipur and Biláspur; and finally joins the Mahánadi at Devíghát. Its chief affluents are the Agar, Hámp, Maniári, Arpá, Kárún, and Lílágar.

Seondárá.—Village in Bilárí *tahsíl*, Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 33′ 45″ N., and long. 78° 54′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 3724. Bi-weekly market held on Thursdays and Sundays. Police station, school, and *sarái* or native inn.

Seonhra.—Town in Datia State of Bundelkhand, Central India Agency.—*See* SEORHA.

Seoní (*Seonee*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 36′ and 22° 58′ N. lat., and between 79° 14′ and 80° 19′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Jabalpur, on the east by Mandlá and Bálághát, on the south by Bálághát, Nágpur, and Bhandárá, and on the west by Narsinghpur and Chhindwárá. Area, 3247 square miles. Population (1881) 334,733 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at SEONI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Seoní occupies a portion of the Sátpura table-land, which separates the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), on the north, from the great plain of Nágpur, on the south. The greater part of the District consists of the plateaux of Lakhnádon and Seoní on the north and west, together with the valleys between; and of the watershed and elevated basin of the Waingangá river on the east. Almost everywhere the scenery presents the varied aspect of an upland country. Geologically, northern Seoní constitutes a part of the wide field of overflowing trap which occupies the area between the Pachmarhí hills westward and the Maikal range beyond Mandlá to the east. In the south, the formation consists of crystalline rock. Towards the western boundary, the metamorphic rocks, chiefly gneiss and micaceous schist, form the southern face of the hills which bound the Seoní plateau. Northwards, they are lost sight of in the bed of laterite which overlies this part of the plateau, and covers the trap to within a short distance of Seoní town. A few miles east of Seoní, the crystalline rocks again come to the surface; and from this point eastward, the valley of the Ságar constitutes the line of demarcation between the crystalline rocks and the trap.

The District is hilly throughout, but the physical features of the geological formations present a marked contrast. In the north the trap hills either take the shape of ridges with straight outlines and flattened tops, or, rising more gradually, expand into wide undulating plateaux. The valleys are wide and bare, and contain the rich black soil formed by disintegrated trap, spread over a deep deposit of calcareous clay; while the intersecting streams, as they cut through the clay, expose broad masses of bare black basalt, alternating with marshy and stagnant pools. In the southern portion of the District, the hills are more

pointed, the valleys more confined, and the soil, even where it is rich, contains a large admixture of sand. Seoní must at one time have abounded with timber. At present the northern hills have much teak, but of an inferior and stunted growth. Along the Waingangá a few patches of young teak are found; the vast bamboo forest of Sonáwání, in the south-east corner of the District, contains fine *bíje-sál* and *tendú;* while to the north some large *sáj* grows upon the hills. The reserved forests consist of the great firewood reserve for Kámthi and Nágpur, covering 315 square miles.

The chief river of the District is the Waingangá, which rises a few miles east of the Nágpur and Jabalpur road, near the Kurái Ghát; and soon afterwards, turning to the south, forms the boundary between Seoní and Bálághát Districts. Its affluents are the Hirí and Ságar on the right bank; the Thelí, Bijná, and Thánwar on the left. Besides these streams, the Tímar and the Sher flow northwards to the Narbadá; and on the west, the Pench for some distance separates Seoní from Chhindwárá. The Nágpur and Jabalpur road crosses the Sher at Sonái Dongrí, where a fine stone bridge spans the river. The general slope of the country is from east to west. The elevation of the Seoní and Lakhnádon plateaux varies from 1800 to 2200 feet above sea-level.

Iron is found at several places in Seoní District, but is only worked at Jutáma near Pipáwání, as since the introduction of the system of Forest Conservancy, charcoal cannot be obtained at a sufficiently low rate. Gold is found in many of the smaller streams and their affluents, and is occasionally washed for by an aboriginal tribe called Mundiás, or locally in Seoní District, Songiriás.

History.—About the 5th century of our era, a dynasty of conquerors appears to have reigned on the Sátpura table-land. Some grants of territory inscribed on copper plates found in Seoní, an inscription in the Zodiac cave at Ajantá, and a few passages in the *Puránas*, dimly disclose a line of princes sprung from one Vindhya-sakti. This mythical hero seems to be the eponymous monarch of the Vindhyan Hills, in which designation the *Puránas* include the Sátpura range. But the history proper of Seoní begins with the reign of Rájá Sangrám Sá of Garha-Mandlá, who, in 1530, extended his dominion over fifty-two chiefships, three of which—Ghansor, Chaurí, and Dongartál—form the greater part of the present District. Nearly two centuries later, Narendra Sá, the Rájá of Mandlá, conferred these tracts on Bakht Buland, the famous prince of Deogarh, in acknowledgment of his assistance in suppressing a revolt. Bakht Buland placed his kinsman Rájá Rám Singh in possession of the Seoní country; and the latter built a fort at Chhapárá and established his head-quarters in that town. Soon afterwards, Bakht Buland made a progress through the District, and chanced to make the acquaintance of Táj

Khán, a Muhammadan adventurer. The bravery of Táj Khán in killing a bear single-handed first attracted the attention and won the favour of the Deogarh monarch; and it was at the instigation, and in the name of Bakht Buland, that Táj Khán attacked and took Sángarhí in Bhandára District.

In 1743, Raghují, the Maráthá Rájá of Nágpur, finally overthrew the dynasty of Deogarh; but Muhammad Khán, who had succeeded his father, Táj Khán, at Sángarhí, refused to recognise the conqueror, and held out against the Maráthás for three years. Admiring his conduct, Raghují offered him Seoní District if he would give up Sángarhí. Muhammad Khán consented; and repaired to Chhapárá, whence he governed Seoní, with the title of Díwán. One serious reverse chequered a fortunate and successful reign when, during the absence of Muhammad Khán at Nágpur, the Rájá of Mandlá attacked and captured Chhapárá. The square tomb which still stands in the ruined fort covers the large pit in which all those slain in the assault were buried. The Díwán, however, speedily advanced from Nágpur with a large force, and recovered his capital; and the Thánwar and Gangá rivers were again declared to be the boundaries between Seoní and the Mandlá kingdom.

Majíd Khán, the eldest son of Muhammad Khán, succeeded in 1761; and was followed in 1774 by his son Muhammad Amín Khán, who removed his head-quarters to Seoní, where he built the present family residence. After a prosperous reign of twenty-four years, he was succeeded by his eldest son, Muhammad Zamán Khán. The weakness of the new ruler proved disastrous both to the country and the dynasty. Chhapárá, which, though no longer the capital, was still a large and flourishing city, with a population, it is said, of 40,000, was sacked and utterly ruined by the Pindárís; and soon afterwards, perceiving the incompetence of the Díwán, and anxious to compensate by fresh acquisitions for their cession of Berar to the British in 1804, the Maráthás ejected Muhammad Zamán Khán. Raghují then sold the government of the District for £30,000 per annum to Kharak Bhártí, a Gosáin. Eventually, with the downfall of the Nágpur power, Seoní came under British rule, and since then has remained undisturbed. The District contains but few architectural remains. At Umargarh, Bhainságarh, Partápgarh, and Kanhágarh, all situated on commanding spots along the southern margin of the Sátpuras, stand ruined forts attributed by tradition to the Bundelá Rájás. Of these, the Bhainságarh fort is in the least imperfect condition. Two old Gond forts also remain,—one in the Sonwárá forest, near Ashta; the other near Uglí, on a well-nigh inaccessible rock in the bed of the Hirí river. At Ghansor, 20 miles north-east of Seoní town, the ruins of about 40 temples seem to indicate the former existence of a large town. Some

of the plinths are still in their place, and are attributed to a caste of Hindus from the Deccan called Hemárpanthís.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Seoní at 421,750, but on a much larger area than the present District. The Census of 1872 disclosed a population, in the District as at present constituted, of 300,558. The last Census in 1881 returned a total of 334,733 inhabitants, showing an increase of 34,175, or 11·37 per cent., in nine years, of which 9·6 per cent. represents the natural increase of registered births over registered deaths, and the remainder the gain by immigration from neighbouring Districts.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3247 square miles, with 1 town and 1462 villages. Number of houses, 72,349, namely, 67,104 occupied, and 5245 unoccupied. Total population, 334,733, namely, males 167,925, and females 166,808. Average density of population, 103·1 persons per square mile. Villages per square mile, 0·45; persons per village, 229; houses per square mile, 20·67; persons per occupied house, 5. Classified according to sex and age, the Census returns—under 15 years, males 72,384, and females 69,430; total children, 141,814, or 42·4 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 95,541, and females 97,378; total adults, 192,919, or 57·6 per cent.

Religion.—Hindus number 179,705, or 53·7 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 13,442, or 4 per cent.; Jains, 1408; Kabírpanthís, 598; Satnámís, 9; Sikhs, 25; Christians, 99; Pársís, 3; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 139,444, or 41·7 per cent. The total number of aboriginal tribes, Hindu and non-Hindu, was returned at 145,995, of whom 145,014 were Gonds.

Among the higher Hindu castes, Bráhmans number 6160; Rájputs, 8958; Baniyás, 2600; and Káyasths, 1324. The lower or Súdra castes include the following:—Ahír, the most numerous caste in the District, 26,674; Mehrá, 17,919; Ponwár, 15,071; Marár, 9746; Katiyá, 7448; Kurmí, 7303; Telí, 6140; Gawárí, 5161; Lohár, 4817; Dhimár, 4815; Lodhí, 4209; Kallár, 4065; Chamár, 3849; Nái, 3633; Kirár, 2746; Sonár, 2525; Dhobí, 2512; Banjárá, 2111; and Kachhí, 1806. The Muhammadan population are divided according to sect into—Sunnís, 12,612; Shiás, 333; Wahábís, 36; and unspecified, 461. The Christian population comprises—Europeans, 15; Eurasians, 7; Indo-Portuguese, 3; and Natives, 74.

Urban and Rural Population.—Seoní town, with a population (1881) of 10,203, is the only place in the District with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, and is the sole municipality. Of the 1462 villages, 866 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 495 between two and five hundred; 89 between five hundred and a thousand; and 12 between one thousand and three thousand. As regards occupation,

the Census divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 7320; (2) domestic class, 1009; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 1830; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 83,536; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 17,378; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 60,452.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3247 square miles, only 1098 square miles were cultivated in 1883–84; and of the portion lying waste, 613 square miles were returned as cultivable, and 1536 square miles as uncultivable waste. The total area assessed for Government revenue is 2276 square miles, of which 984 square miles are cultivated, 596 square miles are cultivable, and 696 square miles are uncultivable waste. Wheat forms the chief crop of the District, and is grown year after year on the rich black soil of the plateaux in the north and west. In 1883–84, it occupied 265,913 acres; while 388,217 acres were devoted to other food-grains. The rice land of the District lies in the south. In 1883, rice was grown on 169,185 acres. Other products were—sugar-cane, 778 acres; cotton, 6594 acres; and other fibres, 2214 acres. The *kása* grass, which yields an oil like the *cajepát*, and the *baherá* (Terminalia bellerica), *harrá* (Terminalia chebula), and *manjít* (Rubia munjeesta), plants which supply valuable dyes, abound in the District. The average out-turn per acre in 1883 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 744 lbs.; inferior grains, 865 lbs.; rice, 555 lbs.; sugar, 1040 lbs.; cotton, 52 lbs.; oil-seeds, 147 lbs. The agricultural stock and implements in 1883–84 were thus returned—Cows, bullocks, and buffaloes, 279,735; horses, 297; ponies, 7032; donkeys, 306; sheep and goats, 22,183; pigs, 12,823; carts, 9611; and ploughs, 32,315.

Of the total male and female agricultural population in 1881, landed proprietors were returned as numbering 2894; tenants with occupancy rights, 21,767; tenants-at-will, 46,602; assistants in home cultivation, 13,879; and agricultural labourers, 50,710. Estate agents, farm-bailiffs, shepherds, herdsmen, etc., bring up the total agricultural population to 141,944, or 42·4 per cent. of the District population; average area of cultivated and cultivable land per head, 8 acres. The rent rates per acre in 1883 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 2s. 7½d.; inferior grains, 1s. 7½d.; rice, 2s. 3d.; cotton, 1s. 11½d.; sugar-cane, 4s. 3d.; cotton, 3s. 10½d. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £16,336, or 6¼d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £48,012, or 1s. 6d. per cultivated acre. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 4s. 1d.; rice, 6s. 10d.; sugar (*gúr*), 12s. 3d.; cotton

(cleaned), 45s. 6d. Wages averaged, for skilled labour, 1s.; for unskilled labour, $3\frac{3}{8}$d. per diem.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of markets in the towns. The most important are those held at Burghát, Korái, and Píparwáni, to which the grain of the rice-producing tract in the south is brought for export to Nágpur and Kámthi (Kamptee). Three annual fairs take place in the District—namely, at Mundára, close to Seoní town at the source of the Waingangá, at Suráikha at the junction of the Hirí and Waingangá, and at Chhapárá. The first two are primarily religious gatherings, but a large business is done in general merchandise, by traders from Seoní, Mandlá, Jabalpur, and Nágpur. The last is a cattle fair, at which some 70,000 head of cattle change hands annually. The imports and exports are both insignificant, but the through traffic between Nágpur and Bhandárá and the north causes some degree of business. The manufactures consist of coarse cloth, and some pottery of superior quality made at Kánhíwárá. At Khawása, in the midst of the forest, leather is beautifully tanned. The chief line of communication is the high-road from Nágpur to Jabalpur, which enters the District near Khawása, and, passing by Seoní town, crosses the border into Jabalpur District near Dhúmá. It has travellers' bungalows at Kurái, Chhapárá, and Dhúmá. A District road with American platform bridges runs from Seoní through Katangi, to join the Great Eastern Road. The other lines consist of mere bullock tracks, leading to various points in Bálághát and Nágpur Districts. Seoní has no means of communication by water or by rail.

Administration.—In 1861, Seoní was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876–77, £25,567; and in 1883–84, £35,419, of which £15,379 was derived from the land-tax. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds (1883–84), £7547. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 6; magistrates, 5. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 45 miles; average distance, 24 miles. Number of regular and town police, 317 men, costing £4621, being 1 policeman to about every 10·34 square miles and to every 1066 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1883 was 72, of whom 6 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £473. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 39, attended by 2255 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 1896 boys and 218 girls as under instruction, besides 3247 males and 126 females able to read and write, but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The plateaux enjoy a moderate and healthy climate.

The average mean temperature at Seoní town for a period of ten years ending 1881 was returned at 74·4° F., the average monthly means being as follows:—January, 63·6°; February, 68·6°; March, 76·9°; April, 84·1°; May, 87·6°; June, 82·7°; July, 76·3°; August, 75·6°; September, 76·0°; October, 72·6°; November, 66·3°; December, 62·9°. In May 1883, the maximum temperature registered was 111·2°, and the minimum 67·7°; July, maximum 88·9°, minimum 68·0°; December, maximum 80·8,° minimum 41·7°. The average annual rainfall for a period spread over 25 years is returned at 49·47 inches—namely, 3·76 inches from January to May; 42·83 inches from June to September; and 2·88 inches from October to December. In 1883, 59·9 inches of rain fell, or 10 inches beyond the average, the excess being solely in the monsoon months, June to September. The prevailing disease is fever, which proves most dangerous during the months succeeding the rains. In 1883, two charitable dispensaries, at Seoní and Lakhnádon, afforded medical relief to 17,865 in-door and out-door patients. The number of registered deaths in 1883 was 9183, equal to a death-rate of 28·43 per thousand, of which 22·62 per thousand were assigned to fever. The average death-rate for the previous five years is returned at 32·13 per thousand. [For further information regarding Seoní, see *The Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Grant, pp. 468–476 (Nágpur, 1870). Also the *Settlement Report of Seoní District*, by Captain W. B. Thomson, between 1854–1866, published in 1867; the *Central Provinces Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government.]

Seoní.—South-western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Seoní District, Central Provinces, lying between 21° 33′ and 22° 27′ N. lat., and between 79° 27′ and 80° 6′ E. long. Area, 1664 square miles, with 1 town and 692 villages, and 38,500 houses. Population (1881) 196,017, namely, males 97,761, and females 98,256; average density of population, 117·8 persons per square mile. The adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 85,390, or 43·56 per cent. of the total population of the Sub-division; average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 6 acres. Of the total area of the *tahsíl* (1664 square miles), 489 square miles are held revenue-free. The Government assessed area amounts to 1175 square miles, of which 550 square miles are cultivated, 224 square miles are cultivable, and 401 square miles uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including rates and cesses levied on the land, £9414, or an average of 6½d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £28,706, or an average of 1s. 7⅜d. per cultivated acre. In 1884, Seoní *tahsíl* contained 4 civil and 3 criminal courts, with 5 police stations (*thánás*) and 8 outpost stations; strength of regular police, 132 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 736.

Seoní.—Principal town and administrative head-quarters of Seoní District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 5′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 35′ E., on the road from Nágpur to Jabalpur, nearly half-way between the two places. Population (1881) 10,203, namely, males 4947, and females 5256. Hindus number 6392; Muhammadans, 2803; Jains, 477; Kabírpanthís, 14; Satnámís, 9; Christians, 90; Pársís, 2; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 416. Municipal income (1883–84), £1878, of which £1642 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 2d. per head. Founded in 1774 by Muhammad Amín Khán, who made it his head-quarters instead of Chhapárá. Seoní contains large public gardens, a fine market-place, and a handsome tank. Principal buildings—court-house, jail, school (which is well attended), dispensary, and post-office. The climate is healthy, and the temperature moderate.

Seoní.—Central *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Area, 491 square miles, with 1 town and 151 villages, and 12,085 houses. Population (1881) 53,865, namely, males 27,368, and females 26,497; average density of population, 109·7 persons per square mile. The adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 16,476, or 30·59 per cent. of the total population of the Sub-division; average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 11 acres. Of the total area of the *tahsíl* (491 square miles), 169 square miles are held revenue-free. The Government assessed area amounts to 322 square miles, of which 181 square miles are cultivated, 89 square miles are cultivable, and 52 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £6579, or an average of 1s. 1⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £17,088, or an average of 2s. 10¼d. per cultivated acre. In 1884, Seoní *tahsíl* contained 2 civil courts, with 1 police station (*thāná*) and 3 outpost stations (*chaukís*); strength of regular police, 40 men; there are no rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*).

Seoní.—Town and municipality in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 28′ N., and long. 77° 29′ E., on the high-road to Bombay. Population (1881) 6998, namely, Hindus, 5427; Muhammadans, 1235; Jains, 147; Kabírpanthís, 37; Christians, 8; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 144. Municipal income (1882–83), £1818, of which £1342 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 10d. per head. Of the town on this site in the time of Akbar, no remains exist. The present town dates from the conquest of the country by Raghují Bhonsla about 1750, when a fort was built where an Amíl resided. A detachment of British troops from Hoshangábád took the fort in 1818. Seoní is perhaps the chief mercantile town in the whole Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, being the entrepôt from which

the cotton of Bhopál and Narsinghpur, as well as of Hoshangábád, is exported to Bombay. Grain is the other export. Imports—English cotton fabrics, spices, and metals. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway has a station at Seoní, and a *sarái* (native inn) has been built.

Seoníband.—Artificial lake in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° N., and long. 80° 2′ E., 8 miles north-west of the Nawegáon tank; about 8 miles in circumference; average depth, 30 feet; length of embankment, 630 feet. Constructed before 1550 by Dádú Patel Kohrí, whose family held Seoní village for about 250 years. In the time of Raghují I., the village was granted to Báká Báí, whose descendants still own it.

Seopur (*Sheopur*).—Town in Gwalior State, Central India Agency; situated in lat. 25° 39′ N., and long. 76° 41′ 15″ E., near the western boundary of the State. According to Thornton, it was formerly the capital of a small Rájput principality, but in the early part of the present century was subjugated by the forces of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. 'In 1816, when garrisoned by Sindhia's general, Baptiste, with 200 men, it was surprised and taken by escalade by the celebrated Rájput chief Jai Singh, who had only 60 men. The captor seized a large amount of treasure, and made the family of Baptiste prisoners.'

Seoráj.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; forming part of the Kúlu Sub-division, and lying between 31° 20′ 30″ and 31° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 77° 14′ and 77° 43′ E. long. Area, 575 square miles. This tract occupies the block of land between the Sainj and the Sutlej (Satlaj). The Jalori or Suket range, an offshoot of the Mid-Himálayan system, divides it into two portions, known as Outer and Inner Seoráj. The greater part of the surface is covered with forests of *deodar* and other trees; but the narrow river valleys present occasional patches of careful cultivation, interspersed with picturesque villages of wooden houses, often highly carved in a rough but effective style, and resembling Swiss *châlets*. Most of the cultivation, however, is conducted on the hill-sides. The custom of polyandry is prevalent.

Seorha.—Town in Datia State, Bundelkhand, Central India Agency; situated 36 miles east of Morár, and 40 miles north-east of Datia town. Population (1881) 7988, namely, Hindus, 6884; Muhammadans, 1102; and 'others,' 2.

Seorí Náráyan.—Eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1415 square miles, with 788 villages and 71,078 houses. Population (1881) 276,590, namely, males 136,832, and females 139,758; average density of population, 195 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 1415 square miles, 166 square miles are held revenue-free, while 348 square miles comprise the four *zamíndárís* of Chápá, Katangi, Biláigarh, and Bhátgáon, which pay

only a nominal quit-rent or *peshkash*. The lands subject to regular assessment cover an area of 899 square miles, of which 505 square miles are cultivated, 343 square miles are cultivable, and 51 square miles uncultivable waste. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £6469, or an average of 4⅞d. per cultivated acre. Rental paid by cultivators, £11,804, or an average of 8⅝d. per cultivated acre. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 1 criminal and 1 civil court, with 3 police stations (*thánás*) and 7 outpost stations (*chaukís*); strength of regular police, 66 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 706.

Seorí Náráyan.—Town in Bilàspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 43′ N., and long. 82° 39′ E., 39 miles east of Bilàspur town, on the Mahánadi river. Population (1881) 2250, namely, Hindus, 2009; Kabírpanthís, 79; Muhammadans, 127; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 26; and 'others,' 9. The temple to Náráyan (whence the name) appears, from an inscription on a tablet, to have been built about 841 A.D. It has no architectural merit. The town was once a favourite residence of the Ratanpur Court. In the rains, the Mahánadi at this point forms a fine river, navigable by large boats from Sambalpur; and even at other times, its channel retains a considerable depth of water. An important religious fair is held every February.

Seota.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 32 miles east of Sítápur town, between the Chauká and Gogra rivers. Founded by Alha, a Chandel Thákur, a *protégé* of Rájá Jai Chand of Kanauj, who granted to Alha possession of all the surrounding tract, known as Gánjar. The town contains a school, the ruins of a mosque, and an old *tálukdár's* fort. Good *bázárs*, and annual fair. Population (1881) 3443.

Sera.—Ancient name for the Southern Division of Dravida, the present Madras Presidency.—*See* CHERA.

Seràjgunge.—Sub-division and town of Pabná District, Bengal.—*See* SIRAJGANJ.

Serampur (*Srírámpur*).—Sub-division of Húglí District, Bengal; lying between 22′ 39′ and 22° 55′ N. lat., and between 88° and 88° 27′ E. long. Area, 343 square miles; number of towns 5, and of villages 764; number of houses, 88,701, of which 7864 are unoccupied. Total population (1881) 351,955, namely, males 174,366, and females 177,589. Hindus number 292,174; Muhammadans, 59,098; Christians, 365; Buddhists, 288; Brahmos, 3; and Santáls, 27. Average density of population, 1026 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·24; persons per village, 457; houses per square mile, 259; persons per house, 4·3. This Sub-division comprises the 5 police circles of Serampur, Haripál, Krishnanagar, Singur, and Chanditalá. In 1884 it contained 3 civil and 9 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 293 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 1254.

Serampur (*Srírámpur*).—Chief town and head-quarters of Serampur Sub-division, Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Húglí river, opposite Barrackpur, in lat. 22° 45′ 26″ N., and long. 88° 23′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 25,559, namely, males 13,137, and females 12,422. Hindus number 22,800; Muhammadans, 2461; and 'others,' 298. Serampur is a first-class municipality, with an income (1883–84) of £4210, of which £3353 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 5¼d. per head of the population (27,520) within municipal limits. The municipality includes several neighbouring hamlets; 41 metalled and 36 unmetalled roads run through the town. Serampur was formerly a Danish settlement, and remained so until 1845, when all the Danish possessions in India were ceded by treaty to the East India Company on payment of £125,000. Station on the East Indian Railway, 13 miles distant from Calcutta (Howrah station). Serampur is historically famous as the scene of the labours of the Baptist missionaries, Carey, Marshman, and Ward; the mission still flourishes, and its founders have established a church, school, college, and noble library in connection with it; there is also a dispensary here. *The Friend of India*, a weekly paper formerly published at Serampur, but now at Calcutta, once rendered this town conspicuous in the history of Indian journalism. Chief manufactures, paper and mats.

Sergada.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Area, 25 square miles. Population (1881) 11,562, namely, males 5762, and females 5800, occupying 1992 houses in 35 villages. Hindus number 11,554, and Muhammadans 8, dwelling in the chief village of the estate. The estate yields fine crops of rice. Traversed by the Aska-Ichapur high-road. The annual *peshkash*, or fixed Government quit-rent, is £582; rental value to the *zamíndár*, £3479. Chief village, Sergadakota; population (1881) 2056, occupying 397 houses.

Seringapatam (*Srírángapatnam*).—The old capital of the State of Mysore; situated on an island of the same name in the Káveri (Cauvery), 75 miles south-east by road from Bangalore, and 10 miles north-east of Mysore city. Lat. 12° 25′ 33″ N., long. 76° 43′ 8″ E. Population (1881), including the suburb of GANJAM, 11,734, namely, males 5579, and females 6155. Hindus number 9789; Muhammadans, 1768; and Christians, 177. Municipal revenue (1874–75), £1048; rate of taxation, 2s. per head. Since the rendition of Mysore State, later municipal statistics are not available.

History.—The name is derived from Srí Ranga, one of the forms of the god Vishnu, who is worshipped by the same title on two other islands lower down the Káveri, SIVASAMUDRAM and SRIRANGAM; but his temple here takes first rank of the three, as Adi Ranga. Local

legend relates that Gautama Buddha himself worshipped at this shrine. According to a Tamil MS., preserved in the Mackenzie collection, the site had become overgrown with jungle, and the temple was rebuilt in 894 A.D., during the reign of the last Gangá sovereign. In 1133, the Vishnuite apostle Rámánuja received a grant of the island, with the surrounding country, from a king of the Ballála dynasty. The fort is said to have been founded in 1454 by a descendant of one of the local officers or *hebbars* appointed by Rámánuja. Seringapatam first appears in authentic history as the capital of the viceroys of the distant Hindu emperors of Vijayanagar, who took the title of Srí-ranga-ráyal. Tirumala, the last of these viceroys, surrendered in 1610 to Rájá Wodeyar, the representative of the rising house of MYSORE. Henceforth Seringapatam remained the seat of Government until the downfall of Tipú Sultán in 1799.

The existing fortifications were almost entirely constructed by Tipú, who thrice sustained a siege from British armies. In 1791, Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, commanding in person, advanced up to the walls, but was compelled to retire through want of provisions. In the following year he won a decisive victory in the field, and had invested the city on all sides, when Tipú purchased peace by the cession of half his dominions. Finally, in 1799, the fort was stormed by General Harris, and Tipú fell in the breach. The siege was begun in April of that year with a powerful battering train, and the assault was delivered after a bombardment of nearly one month's duration. The spot selected for breaching was in the wall facing the Káveri, for the defences were weakest on that side, and the river was at that season of the year easily fordable. After the capture, the island of Seringapatam was ceded to the British Government, who leased it to the State of Mysore for an annual rent of £5000; at the rendition of Mysore State in 1881, it was made over free.

When the residence of the restored Rájá was removed to Mysore city in 1800, Seringapatam immediately fell into decay. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who visited the place in 1800, returned the population at 31,895 souls, as compared with 150,000 when Tipú Sultán was at the height of his power. An outbreak of epidemic fever accompanied this depopulation; and in 1811, the British military head-quarters were removed to BANGALORE. At the present day, the ruins of Seringapatam are almost deserted; and the place bears such a bad name for malaria, that no European traveller dare sleep on the island. The natives attribute this change of climate to the destruction of the sweet flag, a plant to which they assign extraordinary virtue as a febrifuge. The suburb of GANJAM, said to have been colonized by Tipú with the deported inhabitants of SIRA, is a fairly prosperous place, and crowded fairs are held three times in the year.

General Description.—The island of Seringapatam is about 3 miles in length from east to west, and 1 mile in breadth. The fort stands at its upper or western end, immediately overhanging the river. The plan is that of an irregular pentagon, with an extreme diameter of 1½ mile. The defences, which were laid out by Tipú himself, are imposing for their massiveness, though not constructed on scientific principles. They consist of wall piled upon wall, and cavalier behind cavalier, the chief characteristic being the deep ditches cut through the solid granite. The whole remains in almost precisely the same condition as it was left after the siege, even to the breaches, except that a luxuriant growth of trees has been allowed to spring up.

The spot where the English batteries were planted is now marked by two cannons stuck upright in the ground. Inside the fort are the ruins of Tipú's palace, now partly occupied as a storehouse for sandalwood; the old temple of Ránga-nátha-swámi; the Jamá Masjid, a tall mosque with two minarets, built by Tipú shortly before his death; and a few traces of the palace of the early Hindu rulers. Just outside the walls is the Dariya Daulat Bágh, or 'garden of the wealth of the sea,' a building (now falling to decay) of graceful proportions, handsomely decorated with arabesque work in rich colours. It was erected by Tipú for a summer retreat, and contains the celebrated pictures representing the defeat of Baillie at CONJEVARAM in 1780, which, after being twice defaced, were finally restored by the express orders of Lord Dalhousie when Governor-General.

At the eastern or lower end of the island, near the suburb of Ganjám, is the Lál Bágh or 'red garden,' containing the mausoleum built by Tipú Sultán for his father Haidar Alí, in which he himself lies, by his father's side. This is a square building, with dome and minarets, surrounded by a corridor which is supported by pillars of black hornblende. The double doors, inlaid with ivory, were the gift of Lord Dalhousie. The inscription on the tombstone of Tipú relates how he died a martyr to Islám, and at the same time indicates by the initial letters the date of his death. Each of the two tombs is covered with a crimson pall, and the expenses of the place are defrayed by Government. The island of Seringapatam yields valuable crops of rice and sugar-cane, which are watered from a canal originally constructed by Tipú, and brought across from the mainland by an aqueduct.

Seringham.—Town and famous temple in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SRIRANGAM.

Sesa.—River in the south of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which rises in a marsh near the village of Bájaltali, and, flowing south-west in a very circuitous course, empties itself into the Burí Dihing near its junction with the Brahmaputra. During the rainy season, the Sesa is navigable by canoes for a considerable distance.

Sesháchalam.—Hill range in Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras Presidency; an offshoot of the Pálkonda Hills, skirting the east and north-east of the District. Lat. 14° 12′ to 14° 35′ N., long. 78° 1′ 30″ to 78° 56′ E. The hills are uniform in appearance, and rise from 1200 to 1800 feet above the level of the sea. There are no isolated peaks. The Sesháchalam Hills strike off in a westerly direction from the Pálkonda range at a point about 15 miles south of the Penner (Ponnaiyár) river. In some parts they are clothed with rich forests, and the scenery is very beautiful.—*See also* PALKONDA.

Settipattadai (or *Tiruvádi*, *Trivádi*).—Town in Cuddalore *táluk*, South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 46′ N., long. 79° 36′ 35″ E., 15 miles west of Fort St. David. Population (1881) 4566, namely, Hindus, 4273; Muhammadans, 284; and Christians, 9. Number of houses, 569. Except as the seat of a sub-magistrate, Settipattadai is now of no importance; but it was the scene of frequent fighting during the Karnátik wars of the last century. The French occupied it in 1850; Lawrence captured it in 1752. In the following year it was three times attacked by the French; the third time successfully. In 1760, it again fell into the hands of the English.

Settúr.—Town in Srivillipatur *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 26′ N., long. 77° 31′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 6443, occupying 1449 houses. Hindus number 6300; Muhammadans, 90; and Christians, 53. The *zamíndár* is of the Maravar caste, and is descended from an old *pálegár* family, who ruled Tinnevelli as feudal chiefs dependent on the Madura kingdom. The estate is situated at the south-west corner of Srivillipatur *táluk*. It is well irrigated from the mountains, a portion of which, including fine forests, is claimed by the *zamíndár*. The area and population of the estate are not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The *zamíndár* pays annually a *peshkash* or fixed revenue of £1254. The rental amounts to £3624.

Seven Pagodás. — Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras Presidency.—*See* MAHABALIPUR.

Severi (*Seberi*).—River in Madras Presidency.—*See* SABARI.

Sewán.—Sub-division of Sáran District, Bengal. Area, 853 square miles, with 1 town and 1460 villages; number of houses, 121,204, of which 104,848 are occupied and 16,356 unoccupied. Total population (1881) 749,482, namely, males 359,734, and females 389,478; proportion of males, 48 per cent. Hindus number 642,927; Muhammadans, 106,438; and 'others,' 117. Number of inhabitants per square mile, 878; villages per square mile, 1·71; persons per village, 513; houses per square mile, 142; inmates per house, 7. This Sub-division consists of the 3 police circles of Sewán, Daraulí, and Basantpur. It contained in 1884, 1 civil and 2 criminal

courts, a regular police force of 92 men, and 1805 village watchmen.

Sewán.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal.—*See* ALIGANJ SEWAN.

Sewán (*Síwan*).—Town in Kaithal *tahsíl*, Karnál District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 42′ N., and long. 76° 25′ E., about 6 miles west of Kaithal town. Population (1881) 5717, namely, Hindus, 3252; Muhammadans, 2454; and Sikhs, 11. Number of houses, 287. The town itself is an unpretentious collection of native houses, without any building of importance. Its lands include an enormous hollow in which rice is extensively grown with the aid of the flood-waters of the Saraswatí. On the stream is an old Mughal bridge and an abandoned village site of great size, where ancient bricks and Indo-Scythian coins are found in considerable numbers. This site is locally known as Teh Polar.

Sewáni.—Town in Hissár *tahsíl*, Hissár District, Punjab; distant from Hissár town 21 miles south. Population (1881) 3694, chiefly Muhammadan Rájputs, many of whom enjoy the title of Ráo. Thriving and prosperous town, said to have escaped unhurt from the periodical famines which ravage the dry surrounding tract.

Shabkadar (*Shankargarh*). — Town and fort in Doábá-Dáúdzai *tahsíl*, Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated in lat. 34° 10′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 33′ E., about 3 miles from the foot of the western hills, and 17 miles north-east of Pesháwar city. The village is the seat of one of the chief Gigiáni families in the Doábá, and contains a number of wealthy traders. The village sprung up around the fort of Shankargarh, built by the Sikhs on a mound about a mile north of the village. The fort is now strongly fortified, and garrisoned by a force under the command of a field officer. In the centre of the fort is a high bastion called the cavalier, which commands an extensive view of the surrounding country. The garrison consists of infantry and cavalry, who are relieved from Naushahra. The fort and village contains (1881) a total population of 1367, namely, Muhammadans, 667; Hindus, 663; Sikhs, 29; and Christians, 8. Municipal income (1881), £188. Dispensary and police station.

Sháhábád. — British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 31′ and 25° 43′ N. lat., and between 83° 23′ and 84° 55′ E. long. Area, 4365 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,964,909 souls. Sháhábád forms the south-western portion of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Ghází pur in the North-Western Provinces, and the Bengal District of Sáran; on the east by Patná and Gayá Districts; on the south by Lohárdagá; and on the west by the Districts of Mírzápur, Benares, and Ghází pur, in the North-Western Provinces. On the north and east, the boundary is marked by the Ganges and Son (Soane)

rivers, which unite in the north-eastern corner of the District. Similarly, the Karamnása forms the boundary with the North-Western Provinces on the west, from its source to its junction with the Ganges near Chausá; and the Son is the boundary with Lohárdagá on the south. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of ARRAH.

Physical Aspects. — Sháhábád naturally divides into two distinct regions, differing in climate, scenery, and productions. The northern portion, comprising about three-fourths of the whole area, presents the ordinary flat appearance common to the valley of the Ganges in the Province of Behar; but it has a barer aspect than the trans-Gangetic Districts of Sáran, Darbhangah, and Muzaffarpur. This tract is entirely under cultivation, and is dotted over with clumps of trees—mangoes, *mahuá*, bamboos, palms, etc. The southern portion of the District is occupied by the Káimur hills, a branch of the great Vindhyan range. The area of these hills situated within Sháhábád is 799 square miles. The boundaries of the hills, though well defined, are very irregular, and often indented by deep gorges scoured out by the hill streams. The edges are generally very precipitous, and huge masses of rocks which have fallen from the top obstruct in many places the river channels below. The summit of the hills consists of a series of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, with a deposit of rich vegetable mould in the centre, on which the finest crops are produced. There are several *ghâts* or ascents to the top, some of which are practicable for beasts of burden. Two of the most frequented of these passes are Sarkí and Khariyarí—the first near the south-western boundary, the second in a deep gorge north of Rohtás. Two passes on the north side are more accessible,—one, known as the Khulá *ghát*, is 2 miles south of Sásserám; the other is at Chhanpathar, at the extreme west of the District, where the Karamnása forms a waterfall. The slopes to the south are covered with bamboo, while those on the north are overgrown with a mixed growth of stunted jungle. The general height of the plateau is 1500 feet above the level of the sea.

The SON and the GANGES may be called the chief rivers of Sháhábád, although neither of them anywhere crosses the boundary. The District occupies the angle formed by the junction of these two rivers, and is watered by several minor streams, all of which rise among the Káimur hills and flow north towards the Ganges. The most noteworthy of these are the following:—The Karamnása, the accursed stream of Hindu mythology, rises on the eastern ridge of the Káimur plateau, and flows north-west, crossing into Mírzápur District near Kulhuá. After a course of 15 miles in that District, it again touches Sháhábád, which it separates from Benares; finally it falls into the Ganges near Chausá. The Dhobá or Káo rises on the plateau, and flowing north, forms a fine waterfall, and enters the plains at the Tarrachándí Pass, 2

miles south-east of Sásserám. Here it bifurcates—one branch, the Kudra, turning to the west, and ultimately joining the Karamnása; while the other, preserving the name of Káo, flows north and falls into the Ganges near Gáighát. The Dargáutí rises on the southern ridge of the plateau, and after flowing north for 9 miles, rushes over a precipice 300 feet high, into the deep glen of Kadhar Kho; eventually it joins the Karamnása, passing on its way the stalactite caves of Gupta and the hill-fortress of Shergarh. This river contains water all the year round; and during the rains, boats of $1\frac{1}{2}$ ton burthen can sail up stream 50 or 60 miles from its mouth. The chief tributaries of the Dargáutí are the Súrá, Korá, Gonhuá, and Kudra.

No system of forest conservancy prevails, and the forests have consequently been denuded of their best timber, more especially on the slopes of the hills. With the exception of the Government estate of Bánskati, these jungle tracts are the property of the hill *zamíndárs*, who derive a revenue from them from the sale of wood, and a grazing tax. Large herds of cattle are annually driven up the hills in charge of Ahírs to graze on the upland pasturage. Each animal pays a tax of 4 *ánnás* (6d.) for the season. Stick-lac is collected by the Khárwárs in the jungles, worked up locally into bracelets, and is also used as a dye.

Minerals.—Kankar, or nodular limestone, is found in most parts of the plains, especially in the beds of rivers and along the banks of the Son. Where the nodules are large, it is used as a road metal; but where small, it is generally burnt for lime. The Káimur hills consist almost entirely of red sandstone, overlying fossiliferous limestone. The former is largely used in building, for which, on account of its durability, it is admirably adapted. As instances of this quality, it may be mentioned that the works erected of this stone by Sher Sháh and his family, now more than three centuries old, show not the slightest traces of decay; and there are inscriptions nine hundred years old, equally unaffected. Sandstone is largely quarried by the Irrigation Department, and by private individuals for sugar-mills, millstones, curry-stones, and potters' wheels. Limestone is found in large quantities at the bottom of the precipices which surround the table-land and its detached ridges, in the deep glens behind Shergarh, and in the bed of the Karamnása. The lime-burners pay a royalty to the *zamíndárs* of Rs. 2 for every 100 *maunds* quarried. Alum, slate, and martial pyrites are also found, producing an impure sulphate of iron, but the deposits are nowhere worked.

Wild Animals.—In the hilly southern portion of the District, large game abounds. Tigers, bears, and leopards are common; five or six varieties of deer are found; and among the other animals met with are the wild boar, jackal, hyæna, and fox. The *nílgái* (blue cow), the Antelope picta of naturalists, is seen on the Káimur table-land. Of

game birds, the barred-headed goose (Anser indicus) is common. The black-backed goose (Sarkidornis melanotus) and the grey goose (A. cinereus) are also to be found. The former is very rare in Lower Bengal, and the latter is seldom seen south of Central India, though it is a common visitor in the north. The other game birds of the District include many varieties of wild duck (the most remarkable being the sheldrake), several kinds of teal, partridges, curlews, and pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, snipe, and golden and common plovers.

The Son Canals.—The project of irrigating Sháhábád District by a comprehensive scheme of canals, which should also be navigable, dates from 1855, when Colonel Dickens proposed the construction of canals from Patná westwards to Chanár, a project subsequently extended to Monghyr in the one direction and to Mírzápur in the other. It was, however, finally decided in 1871 that the original scheme should not be extended, and it is still an open question whether the Main Western Canal shall be extended even as far as Chanár. The work was commenced in 1869 by the construction of an anicut or weir at Dehrí-on-Son, about half a mile south of the causeway which carries the Grand Trunk Road from Bárún to Dehrí. This weir is 12,500 feet long by 120 broad, and 8 feet above the normal level of the river bed. It constitutes the head-work of the system. The Main Western Canal, starting from here, has to carry up to the fifth mile, where the ARRAH CANAL branches off in a north-westerly direction, 4511 cubic feet of water per second, to irrigate 1,200,000 acres, only 600,000 of which require simultaneous irrigation. The Arrah Canal takes off 1616 cubic feet of water per second, which leaves 2895 cubic feet up to the 12th mile, where the BAXAR and CHAUSA CANALS branch off in a northerly direction, abstracting a further quantity of 1260 cubic feet per second. In aligning the Main Western Canal, the great object was to escape a heavy cutting 30 feet deep at Dehrí, and carry the water along the ridges of the country. It curves round in a northerly direction to the head-works of the Arrah Canal, then bends to the west, crossing the Káo by means of a siphon aqueduct at Bihiyá, and finally stops on the Grand Trunk Road 2 miles west of Sásserám. The distance from Dehrí to this point is 21½ miles. The length of the Arrah Canal is 60 miles from Dehrí to the point where it enters the Gangí *nadi*, by which it communicates (a farther distance of 10 miles) with the Ganges. With its two branches, the BIHIYA and DUMRAON CANALS, the Arrah Canal commands an area of 441,500 acres. The Bihiyá Canal, 30½ miles long, has 7 distributaries; and the Dumráon branch, 40½ miles long, has 12. The Arrah Canal has, in addition to these two branches, 4 principal distributaries. The total length of the Baxár and Chausá branches is 85 miles, and they command with their distributaries the country between the Káo and the Dunáutí on the west, a tract which

greatly needs irrigation. As a rule, the canals run in such a way that they do not cross the natural drainage channels of the country; but where this is not so, siphons have been provided which allow the water to pass under the canal unhindered. Many of the works being still incomplete, it is not possible to give at present a trustworthy estimate of the total cost of the work. There can be little doubt that these canals have conferred upon Sháhábád entire immunity from future famines. As far as the Son readings have gone, they show that a minimum supply of 3000 cubic feet of water per second can be depended upon up to the 15th of January; and this would suffice to irrigate 480,000 acres. But many of the cold-weather crops will have been completely irrigated before this date, so that the amount of water required decreases equally with the volume of the stream. Thus, peas, which occupy a very large area, generally receive their last watering about Christmas, when the supply is 3500 cubic feet per second. Generally speaking, three waterings are required for the cold-weather crops—one early in November, one in December, and one in the middle of January. After February, the supply of water decreases very rapidly; and though in exceptional years of high flood, irrigation might be carried on up to March and April for sugar-cane and indigo, these crops can only be occasionally watered or drenched in an ordinary year.

Population.—Sháhábád was one of the Districts statistically surveyed in the beginning of the present century by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who made the area 4087 square miles, and the population 1,419,520. According to a later estimate, based upon the Survey of 1844-46, the area was returned at 4404 square miles, and the population at 1,602,274. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,723,974 persons upon the area of the District as at present constituted. The last Census in 1881 returned the population at 1,964,909, showing an increase of 240,935, or 13·97 per cent., between 1872 and 1881. This large increase in nine years is due entirely to natural causes, the District not having suffered from exceptional disease, and cultivation having been largely developed during these years, owing to the opening of irrigation canals.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows: —Area of District, 4365 square miles; number of towns 10, and villages 5631; number of houses, 312,762, namely, occupied 274,934, and unoccupied 37,828. Population 1,964,909, namely, males 950,250, and females 1,014,659; proportion of males, 48·4 per cent. Average density of population, 450 persons per square mile, ranging from 917 per square mile in Arrah *thána*, and 777 per square mile in Belauti in the thickly populated tracts in the neighbourhood of the Ganges, to 188 per square mile in Bhabuá, and 225 per square mile in Sásserám in the west and south of the District, where there is much

hilly and uncultivated land. Number of towns and villages throughout the District, 1·29 per square mile; persons per town or village, 348; houses per square mile, 71·65; inmates per occupied house, 7·15. Classified according to sex and age, the Census gives the following results—under 15 years of age, boys 394,940, and girls 370,788; total children, 765,728, or 38·9 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 555,310, and females 643,871; total adults, 1,199,181, or 61·1 per cent.

Religion.—The great majority of the people are Hindus by religion, that faith being professed by 1,817,881 persons, or 92·5 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans number 146,732, or 7·4 per cent.; Christians, 276; and 'others,' 20. Among the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 213,308; Rájputs, 207,195; Bábhans, 59,075; Káyasths, 46,994; and Baniyás, 34,568. The lower or Súdra castes included the following:—Goálá, cattle dealers, herdsmen, and dairymen, who form the most numerous caste in the District, 242,721; Koerí, the principal agricultural caste, 152,846; Chamárs, 119,010; Dosádh, 90,155; Kandu, 68,427; Kúrmí, 66,341; Káhár, 62,812; Telí, 47,836; Lohár, 32,563; Nápit, 29,153; Bind, 24,582; Garerí, 23,817; Kumbhár, 23,814; Kalwár, 20,126; Nuniyá, 18,666; Sonár, 18,139; Dhobí, 16,741; Mallah, 14,943; Barhái, 14,741; Musahár, 12,912; Pásí, 11,894; Tántí, 7016; Rájwar, 6802; Dom, 5732; Tambulí, 5456; Málí, 5100; Madak, 4836; Sunri, 4409; Keut or Kewat, 3389; Tatwá, 3372; Baruí, 2573; and Jugí, 2167. Caste-rejecting Hindus numbered 3033, of whom 1542 were Vaishnavs. Hinduized aboriginal tribes were returned at 31,401, including Gonds, 7089; Khárwárs, 5959; Bhuiyás, 301; and 'others,' 18,052. The Muhammadans were divided according to sect into—Sunnís, 142,435; Shiás, 3106; and unspecified, 1191. The Christian community consisted of—Europeans, 166; Eurasians, 78; natives of India, 10; and 'others,' 22. By sect, 220 were Protestants or belonging to the Church of England; 40 were Roman Catholics; and 16 unspecified.

Urban and Rural Population.—Sháhábád District contains eight towns with more than five thousand inhabitants, namely, ARRAH, population (1881) 42,998; DUMRAON, 17,429; BUXAR, 16,498; JAGDISPUR, 12,568; BHOJPUR, 9278; NASRIGANJ, 6063; BHABUA, 5728; and DHANGAIN, 5600. Two other towns are returned as municipalities, but with less than five thousand inhabitants, namely, CHENARI, 3336; and SASSERAM, 2531. The total urban population thus disclosed is 122,029, or 6·2 per cent. of the District population. There are altogether nine municipalities in the District, with a total population of 126,163; municipal income (1883–84), £5464, of which £3888 was derived from taxation; average incidence, $7\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population within municipal limits. Of the 5631 villages, 2919 contain less

than two hundred inhabitants; 1611 between two and five hundred; 772 between five hundred and a thousand; 254 between one and two thousand; 53 between two and three thousand; and 21 between three and five thousand. As regards occupation, the Census Report divides the male population into the following six classes:—(1) Professional class, including all Government servants, civil and military, 12,155; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, 36,073; (3) commercial class, including merchants, bankers, traders, carriers, etc., 35,728; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 307,604; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including all artisans, 83,473; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 475,217.

Antiquities.—The principal place of interest in the District, from an antiquarian point of view, is the fort of Rohtás or ROHTASGARH, so called from Prince Rohitáswa, son of Harischandra, one of the kings of the Solar dynasty. The present buildings were erected by Mán Singh, soon after he was appointed Viceroy of Bengal and Behar in 1644. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the Káimur table-land, measuring about 4 miles from east to west, and 5 miles from north to south. Other places of interest in Sháhábád are the ruins of Shergarh fort, named after Sher Sháh, its founder; Chainpur fort, with several interesting monuments and tombs; Darautí and Baidyanáth, with ruins attributed to the Suars or Sivirás; Masár, the Mo-ho-so-lo of Hiuen Tsiang; Chausá, the scene of the defeat of Humáyún in 1539 by Sher Sháh; Tilothu, near which are a fine waterfall and a very ancient Cheru image; and Pataná, once the capital of a Hindu Rájá of the Suar tribe. A description of these places will be found under their respective names. The sacred cave of Guptasar lies in the centre of the Káimur plateau, 7 miles from Shergarh.

The town of Arrah is invested with a special historical interest, as being the scene of a stirring episode in the Mutiny of 1857. A body of rebels, consisting of about 2000 Sepoys from Dinápur and four times as many armed villagers, under Kuár Singh, marched in the end of July on Arrah. They reached the town on the 27th of that month, and forthwith released all the prisoners in the jail, and plundered the treasury. The European women and children had already been sent away, but there remained in the town about a dozen Englishmen, official and non-official, and three or four other Christians of different races. The Commissioner of Patná, Mr. Tayler, had supplied a garrison of 50 Sikhs. This small force held out for a long eight days, until rescued by Major Vincent Eyre. The centre of defence had been wisely chosen. At this time the East Indian Railway was in course of construction, under the local superintendence of Mr. Vicars Boyle, who, fortunately, had some knowledge of

fortification. He occupied two houses, now known as the Judge's houses, the smaller of which, a two-storied building about 20 yards from the main house, was forthwith fortified and provisioned. The lower windows, etc. were built up, and sand-bags ranged on the roof.

When the news came that the mutineers were advancing along the Arrah road, the Europeans and Sikhs retired to the smaller house. The rebels, after pillaging the town, made straight for Mr. Boyle's little fortress. A volley dispersed them, and forced them to seek the shelter of the larger house, only a few yards off, whence they carried on an almost continuous fire. They attempted to burn or smoke out the little garrison, and tried various other safe modes of attack, but they had no guns. Kuár Singh, however, produced two small cannon which he had dug up, and artillery missiles were improvised out of the house furniture. In the small house there was no thought of surrender. Mr. Herwald Wake, the Magistrate, put himself in command of the Sikhs, who, though sorely tempted by their countrymen among the mutineers, remained faithful throughout the siege. A relieving party of 150 European troops, sent by water from Dinápur, fell into an ambuscade on landing in Sháhábád; and as time passed away and no help arrived, provisions and water began to run short. A bold midnight sally resulted in the capture of 4 sheep, and water was obtained by digging a well 18 feet deep inside the house. A mine of the enemy was met by countermining.

On the 2nd August, the besieged party observed an unusual excitement in the neighbourhood. The fire of the enemy had slackened, and but few of them were visible. The sound of a distant cannonade was heard. Before sunset the siege was at an end, and on the following morning the gallant garrison welcomed their deliverers—Major Vincent Eyre with 150 men of the 5th Fusiliers, a few mounted volunteers, and 3 guns with 34 artillerymen. Major Eyre had dispersed Kuár Singh's forces on his way to Arrah, and they never rallied.

Agriculture.—The chief staple of Sháhábád is rice, of which three principal crops are grown, namely—the *bhadaí* or early crop, which is sown in July or August, and ripens in about sixty days; the *báwag*, sown broadcast in June or July, and reaped in November and December; and the *ropá* or winter crop, which is also sown in June and July, and reaped in December and January. Besides these, a very limited area is planted with *boro* rice, sown in November and cut in April. Many varieties of each rice crop are named. The other crops of the District include—wheat, barley, maize, and other cereals; gram, peas, lentils, and several other green crops; *tíl*, linseed, castor-oil, and mustard; many kinds of vegetables; cotton, hemp and jute, poppy, sugar-cane, betel-leaf, tobacco, safflower, indigo, etc. Roughly speaking, it may be estimated that of the total area (2,808,400 acres) of the

District, 2,200,000 acres are under cultivation. The area usually covered by autumn (*bhadaí*) and winter (*aghaní*) food crops is about 1,500,000 acres; that occupied by spring or *rabí* food crops, 600,000 acres; and that under other than food staples, 100,000 acres. The area under poppy is about 22,000 acres (average out-turn, 27½ lbs. of opium per acre); that under tobacco, only 300 acres.

Sháhábád has, on the whole, a much drier soil than the trans-Gangetic Districts of Sáran, Muzaffarpur, and Darbhangah. Along the north of the District runs a fringe of low-lying *khádir* land, representing the bed of the Banás or old Ganges, which is inundated for about four months every year, when the main stream is in full flood. Cold-weather crops of the finest character are grown here, on a soil enriched by the silt brought down by every flood. Very little land has been rendered uncultivable owing to blown sand from the bed of the Son (Soane). The soil is light for a few miles west of that river during the greater part of its course, except at its mouth, where the influence of the Ganges makes itself felt. This light soil may be divided into two classes—one consisting of fine sand mixed with a loose mould; the other a very tenacious clay, intermixed with a good deal of coarse sand. Both soils, so long as they are kept moist, produce good crops; but without irrigation they grow nothing, except a few pulses sown in the rains. Throughout the District, a free mould forms a large portion of the soil; when quite free, it is known as *dorás*, *pairu*, and *dhash;* when mixed with a little clay, it is called *sigat.* This last soil is especially suited for rice. Clay or *bangar* lands are considered the best, on the whole, as they retain moisture very well, and produce cold-weather crops without irrigation. The soil in the saucer-shaped valleys on the Káimur plateau is a rich and purely vegetable mould, swept down from the hills above.

A holding of above 100 acres in extent is considered a very large farm, and anything below 3½ acres a very small one. A fair-sized comfortable holding for a husbandman cultivating his own lands would be about 13 acres. A small-sized holding of 5 acres, which is as much as a single pair of bullocks can cultivate, would not make a peasant so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper; but it would enable him to live as well as a man receiving 16s. a month in money wages.

Sháhábád District contains a small but increasing class of day-labourers, called *banihargs*, who neither possess nor rent lands, but depend entirely on their wages. These men often hire themselves out as field-labourers, and are paid by a share (sometimes amounting to one-sixteenth) of the produce. In this case they are called *lajhiás.* They occasionally supply half the seed and half the number of cattle required. It is supposed that this class first sprang up when the railway was being constructed; and it has been largely fostered by the demand for labour on the Son Canal works.

Wages and prices are reported to have risen, but the figures for early years are not available. The Government irrigation scheme already described has considerably raised the price of labour; and masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths, who before the opening of the canal works earned from 4½d. to 6d. a day, now make from 6d. to 9d. The cultivators pay their rent either in kind (*bháolí*) or in cash. The latter system prevails everywhere in the case of special crops, such as poppy, sugar-cane, cotton, and potatoes, and is universal for all crops in the north of the District. Under the *bháolí* system, the proportion taken by the landlord varies according to the crop. Thus, for broadcast rice, the customary landlord's share is a little less than one-half; while for transplanted rice, and wheat, and generally where irrigation requires to be carried on from wells, the landlord's share is one-third. Where money rents prevail, the following are returned as the outside rates:—For early rice land, on which an after-crop of pulses, vegetables, oil-seeds, etc. is grown, 1s. 7d. to 15s. 10d. an acre; for late rice land, generally a single crop, 3s. 2d. to 15s. 10d. an acre; other food-grains, such as wheat, peas, etc., and linseed, 2s. 4½d. to £1, 11s. 8d. an acre.

Natural Calamities. — Sháhábád is subject to blight, flood, and drought. Blights, although they occasionally cause considerable damage, never occur on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. The Ganges annually overflows its banks; but the principal inundations result from the rising of the Son on the elevated plateau of Central India. Destructive floods have only occurred during the last few years, since a portion of the high land that formerly protected the District was washed away. About one-sixth of the total area is subject to inundation. Droughts arising from deficient rainfall, and the want of an extensive and complete system of irrigation, frequently caused distress previous to the opening of the canal works described above; and four times in the course of five years—in 1865, 1866, 1867, and 1869—drought seriously affected the harvest. The Son Canals have now, as has been stated, secured for the District immunity from future famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets in the towns, and at fairs. The most frequented of these fairs are held at Barhampur near Raghunáthpur railway station, Baxár, Zakhaní, Dhusariyá, Padamanián, Gadahní, Kastar Danwar, Dhamár, Masárh, and Guptasar. The principal exports are—rice, wheat, barley, pulses, gram, oats, linseed, carraway-seed, paper, and spices; the chief imports — cleaned rice, betel-nut, tobacco, sugar, molasses, salt, pepper, cotton, iron, brass, zinc, copper, lead, tin, and betel-leaf or *pán*. The two great highways of trade to and from the District are the Ganges and the East Indian Railway. The railway runs through the District for a distance of 60 miles, from

Koelwár station on the Son to Chausá on the Karamnása, the intermediate stations being Arrah, Bihíyá, Raghunáthpur, Dumráon, and Baxár. The aggregate length of roads in the District, exclusive of village tracks, is about a thousand miles, maintained from the proceeds of a road cess of 1 per cent. on the land revenue of the District. The principal manufactures are sugar, paper, saltpetre, blankets, coarse cotton cloth, and brass utensils. The figures supplied for the first edition of this work returned 58 sugar refineries in the District in 1872-73 (of which 42 were at Nasríganj), and the amount manufactured at 965 tons, valued at £28,350. Statistics for a later year are not available. Paper is made at Sáhár and Haríharganj, both on the Son; and blankets and carpets in the Sásserám and Bhabuá Sub-divisions.

Administration.—So far as can now be ascertained, it would appear that the net revenue of Sháhábád increased from £101,851 in 1790-91 to £167,277 in 1849-50, to £233,978 in 1870-71, and to £253,554 in 1883-84; while the net expenditure, in like manner, increased from £5627 in 1790-91 to £25,046 in 1849-50, and to £44,158 in 1870-71; while it fell to £37,937 in 1883-84. The land-tax forms the principal item of revenue here, as elsewhere in Bengal; and the amount collected increased from £97,508 in 1790 to £171,263 in 1883-84. The number of estates has more than doubled in the same time, being 2330 in 1790, and 5961 in 1883; while the number of proprietors has increased by nearly fifty-fold, namely, from 1289 in 1790 to 50,410 in 1883. In the former year, the average amount paid by each proprietor was £80, 14s., and in the latter year, £3, 8s.

For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 4 Sub-divisions, and 11 *thánás* or police circles, as follows:—(1) Arrah or head-quarters Sub-division, with the three police circles of Arrah, Belauti, and Piru; (2) Baxár Sub-division, with the two police circles of Baxár and Dumráon; (3) Sásserám Sub-division, with the four police circles of Sásserám, Kharghar, Dhangáin, and Dehrí; and (4) Bhabuá Sub-division, with the two police circles of Bhabuá and Mohaniá. Number of civil judges (1883-84), 8; stipendiary magistrates, 12. In 1883 the regular and town police force numbered 611 officers and men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £10,024. There was also a rural police or village watch of 4854 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £10,996. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 5465 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·79 square mile of the area or to every 359 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £21,020, equal to an average of £4, 16s. 4d. per square mile of area and nearly 2½d. per head of population. In 1883-84, 2562 persons were convicted of an offence of some sort, great or small. The District has 4 jails, which contained in 1883 an average daily number of 214 prisoners.

The number of Government and aided schools in Sháhábád in 1856–57 was 8, with 354 pupils; in 1870–71 there were only 13 such schools, attended by 589 pupils. Since the latter year, however, owing to the encouragement of primary education by an extension of the grant-in-aid system, the number of Government and aided schools has largely increased. In 1871–72 there were 47 schools, with 1572 pupils; and in 1877–78 there were 282, attended by 7211 pupils. In 1883–84, by which time the grant-in-aid system had received full development, there were 1337 lower primary schools under Government inspection, attended by 20,883 pupils. The Arrah District school had 464 pupils in 1883–84. The Census of 1881 returned 13,960 boys and 385 girls as under instruction, besides 36,930 males and 1024 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sháhábád is fairly healthy. The prevailing endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, bowel complaints, and skin diseases. Cholera and small-pox occur from time to time in an epidemic form. The total number of registered deaths in the District in 1883–84 was 36,930, showing a death-rate of 21·28 per thousand. Seven charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief in 1883 to 690 in-door and 37,169 out-door patients. Average annual rainfall for 25 years ending 1881, 45·24 inches, distributed as follows:—January to May, 4·08 inches; June to September, 38·15 inches; and October to December, 3·01 inches. In 1883–84 the rainfall was 32·19 inches, or 13·05 inches below the average, the deficiency being conspicuous in all three seasons. [For further information regarding Sháhábád, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. xii. pp. 157–294 (Trübner & Co., 1877); Dr. Martin's Edition of the *Statistics of Behár and Sháhábád*, collected by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton (*circ.* 1807) under the orders of the Government of India. Also the *Bengal Census Reports* of 1872 and 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of Bengal.]

Sháhábád.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Hardoi District, Oudh, lying between 27° 24′ and 27° 47′ N. lat., and between 79° 43′ and 80° 21′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces, on the east by Muhamdi *tahsíl*, on the south by Hardoi *tahsíl*, and on the west by Farukhábád District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 539 square miles, of which 310 are cultivated. Population (1881) 216,825, namely, Hindus, 189,000; Muhammadans, 27,823; and 'others,' 2. Males 116,752, and females 100,073; average density of population, 402 persons per square mile. Of the 520 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 397 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 92 between five hundred and a thousand; 29 between one and five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

Government land revenue, £8836. This Sub-division comprises the 8 *parganás* of Sháhábád, Alamnagar, Piháni, Mansurnagar, Sárá (North), Saromannagar, Páli, and Pachhoha. In 1884 it contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular and town police, 118 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukidárs*), 595.

Sháhábád.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Alamnagar and Sárá, the Sukheta river forming the boundary line; on the south by Saromannagar; and on the west by Pachhoha and Páli, from which it is separated by the Garra river. Area, 131 square miles, of which 81 are cultivated. Chief products — wheat, barley, *bájra*, gram, *joár*, rice, *arhar*, and sugar-cane. At the time of the revenue survey, wheat occupied about one-third of the cultivated area; barley and *bájra* each about a tenth; and gram, *joár*, and rice together about a fourth. Population (1881) 67,182, namely, Hindus 55,867, and Muhammadans 11,315. Of the 143 villages that make up the *parganá*, 72 are held by Muhammadans, 25½ by Bráhmans, 21½ by Rájputs, 9 by Káyasths, 1 by Gosáins, 1 by Europeans, and 13 by the Government. The varieties of tenure are—*tálukdárí*, 26 villages; *zamíndárí*, 82; and *pattidárí*, 35. Government land revenue, £9342, equal to an average of 3s. 7½d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 2¾d. per acre of total area. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs through the *parganá*, with a station near Sháhábád town.

The country was originally in the hands of the Thatheras, whose chief settlement seems to have been at and around Angni Khera, on the site of Sháhábád town. They are said to have been dispossessed in the 8th century A.D. by a band of Bráhmans, who were on a pilgrimage from Benares to Hardwár. The Bráhmans retained possession of Angni Khera and the surrounding country till the reign of Aurangzeb, when, having plundered a convoy of treasure on its way to Delhi, a retaliatory expedition was sent out under an Afghán chief, Diler Khán, who surprised the Bráhmans at a bathing festival, slew them, and took possession of their lands, which were confirmed to him by the Delhi Emperor. Diler Khán founded the town of Sháhábád on the old site of Angni Khera, which he filled with his Afghán kinsmen and troops, assigning them jungle grants in the neighbourhood. Diler Khán's family gradually extended their possessions, acquiring either by purchase, mortgage, fraud, or force, every village in the *parganá*, which they held as proprietors till some fifty or sixty years ago, when the family began to decay and the estate to fall to pieces. The old proprietors in some cases succeeded in recovering possession of their villages, mostly by purchase from the Nawáb's family. The descendants of Diler Khán, however, still hold possession of more than one-half of the *parganá*.

Sháhábád.—Town and municipality in Hardoi District, and head-quarters of Sháhábád *tahsíl* and *parganá;* situated on the road from Lucknow to Sháhábád, 15 miles from the latter town, in lat. 27° 38′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 59′ 5″ E. The most populous town in the District, and the fourth largest in Oudh. Population (1881) 18,510, namely, males 9210, and females 9300. Hindus number 10,784, and Muhammadans 7726. Municipal income (1883-84), £383, of which £312 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 4d. per head.

The town is divided into wards or *mahallas*, named for the most part after the companions in arms of the founder, Diler Khán. It is connected with Sháhjahánpur, Páli, Sándi, Hardoi, and Piháni by unmetalled roads; it is also a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The Sub-divisional courts and police station are placed in the enclosure of the Jamá Masjid, a mosque built by Diler Khán. Vernacular school, dispensary, and *sarái* (travellers' rest-house). No trade or manufacture of importance. Several markets are held in the different wards.

Sháhábád town has decreased in importance during the past hundred years, the inhabitants dating the decay from the decline of the Delhi Empire, and the rise of Oudh to independence. The present population is said to be only one-third of what it was formerly. Tieffenthaler describes Sháhábád, about 1770 A.D., as 'of considerable circuit, and nearly in the middle is a palace of brick strengthened with towers like a fortress (the Bari Deorhi constructed by Diler Khán), with a vestibule and spacious covered colonnade. Most of the houses are of brick, and there is a fine mosque built of the same material, and enclosed by a wall. The town extends a mile from north to south, its breadth is something less, but of its flourishing state little remains.' When visited by Tennant in 1799, it was an expanse of ruins, 'that appeared in the form of hills, and broken, crumbling to dust.' Heber found it in 1824 'a considerable town, or almost city, with the remains of fortifications and many large houses.'

The following account of Shahábád in 1850 is quoted from Sir W. Sleeman's *Tour through Oudh*, vol. ii. pp. 46, 47. It is interesting as giving the origin of the chronic ill-feeling that exists between the Muhammadans and Hindus, which broke out into a riot at the *Muharram* festival of 1868:—'Sháhábád is a very ancient and large town, occupied chiefly by Pathán Musalmáns, who are a very turbulent and fanatical set of fellows. Subsukh Rái, a Hindu, and the most respectable merchant in the District, resided here, and for some time consented to officiate as the deputy of poor old Háfiz Abdullá for the management of the town, where his influence was great. He had lent a good deal of money to the heads of some of the Pathán families of the town; but finding few of them disposed to repay, he was last year obliged to refuse

further loans. They determined to take advantage of the coming *Muharram* festival to revenge the affront, as men commonly do who live among such a fanatical community. The *tazias* are commonly taken up and carried in procession ten days after the new moon is first seen at any place where they are made; but in Oudh, all go by the day in which the moon is seen from the capital of Lucknow. As soon as she is seen at Lucknow, the king issues an order throughout his dominions for the *tazias* to be taken in procession ten days after. The moon was this year (1850), in November, first seen on the 30th of the month at Lucknow; but at Sháhábád, where the sky is generally clearer, she had been seen on the 29th. The men to whom Subsukh Rái had refused further loans determined to take advantage of this incident to wreak their vengeance; and when the deputy promulgated the king's order for the *tazias* to be taken in procession ten days after the 30th, they instigated all the Muhammadans of the town to insist upon taking them out ten days after the 29th, and persuaded them that the order had been fabricated or altered by the malice of their Hindu deputy to insult their religious feelings. The *tazias* were taken out accordingly; and having to pass the house of Subsukh Rái, when their excitement or spirit of religious fervour had reached the highest pitch, they there put them down, broke open the doors, entered in a crowd, and plundered it of all the property they could find, amounting to about 70,000 rupees. Subsukh Rái was obliged to get out with his family at a back door, and run for his life. He went to Sháhjahánpur, in our territory, and put himself under the protection of the Magistrate. Not content with all this, the Muhammadans built a small miniature mosque at the door with some loose bricks, so that no one could go either out or in without the risk of knocking it down, or so injuring this mock mosque as to rouse, or enable the evil-minded to rouse, the whole Muhammadan population against the offender. Poor Subsukh Rái has been utterly ruined, and ever since seeking in vain for redress. The Government is neither disposed nor able to afford it, and the poor boy who has now succeeded his learned father in the contract is helpless. The little mock mosque of uncemented bricks still stands as a monument of the insolence of the Muhammadan population, and the weakness and apathy of the Oudh Government.'

Sháhábád.—Town in Piplí *tahsíl*, Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 10′ N., and long. 76° 55′, on the Grand Trunk road, 16 miles south of Ambála town. Population (1881) 10,218, namely, males 5091, and females 5127. Muhammadans, 5961; Hindus, 3600; Sikhs, 652; and Jains, 5. Number of houses, 1049. Municipal income (1883-84), £520, or an average of 1s. 0½d. per head. Founded by one of the followers of Alá-ud-dín Ghori about 1086 A.D. The town is well built of brick, and ornamented by several

handsome mansions of Sikh *sardárs*. Important Sikh family, descended from Karm Singh, immigrated hither in 1759. Government resumed half the estate on failure of heirs in 1863; the remainder passed to two cousins, representatives of another branch of the family. Inhabitants principally engaged in agriculture; no manufactures; local grain trade.

Sháhábád.—Town in Rámpur State, North-Western Provinces; situated on the south bank of the Rámgangá, in lat. 28° 33′ 30″ N. and long. 79° 4′ E. Population (1881) 8200, namely, Muhammadans 4987, and Hindus 3213. The town is built on rising ground, and is considered the healthiest place in the State. The Nawáb has a summer residence in Sháhábád, built on the ruins of an old mud fort; it is about 100 feet higher than the surrounding country, and commands a fine view for miles around. Several old Pathán families live here.

Sháhábád.—Town in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India. Lat. 33° 32′ N., long. 75° 16′ E. Thornton says that it was a favourite residence of the early Mughal Emperors, but has been suffered to fall into decay. Stands in the midst of a fruitful and picturesque valley, famous for producing the finest wheat in Kashmír. *Bázár*, with a few shops. Elevation above sea-level, 5600 feet.

Sháhábázár. — Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 6268; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Sháháda.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 479 square miles. Population (1881) 64,368, namely, males 32,717, and females 31,651; occupying 9075 houses, in 2 towns and 149 villages. Hindus number 44,018; Muhammadans, 2738; and 'others,' 17,612. Although the Sub-division possesses two perennial streams, the Tápti forming the southern boundary for a distance of 27 miles, and its tributary the Gomi, it is on the whole scantily provided with surface water. The prevailing soil is a rich loam resting on a yellowish subsoil. In 1863–64, the year of settlement, 4475 holdings (*khátás*) were recorded, with an average of 23·44 acres each, and paying an average assessment of £4, 2s. 0¾d. The area under actual cultivation in 1878–79 was 112,379 acres. Cereal and millets occupied 80,293 acres; pulses, 10,465 acres; oil-seeds, 9938 acres; fibres, 9957 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1726 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thánd*), 1; regular police, 49 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 185. Land revenue, £24,497.

This region in 1370 formed part of the kingdom of Gujarát, and was invaded and laid waste by Malik Rájá, the founder of a dynasty in Khándesh. Subsequently it passed to the Mughals; and afterwards to the Maráthás. In 1818 it came under British rule.

Sháháda.—Chief town of the Sháháda Sub-division, Khándesh

District, Bombay Presidency; situated 48 miles north-west of Dhulia. Together with Kukdel, it contained in 1881 a population of 5441. Hindus numbered 3675; Muhammadans, 1192; Jains, 35; and 'others,' 539. Municipality, with an income in 1883-84 of £288; incidence of taxation, 11d. Dispensary; post-office.

Sháhápur.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 870 square miles. Population (1881) 107,729, namely, males 55,412, and females 52,317; occupying 18,630 houses in 273 villages. Hindus number 104,959; Muhammadans, 2486; and 'others,' 284. Sháhápur includes the petty division of Mokháda, and was formerly known as Rolvan. It is a strip of country 50 miles long and 5 to 30 miles broad, stretching in the east of the District below the Sahyádris. The country is, for the most part, wild, broken by hills and covered with large forests. The open parts are in the south, where there are wide tracts of rice lands. The soil is mostly red and stony. In 1879-80, 8880 holdings were recorded with an average area of 26¾ acres each, paying an average Government assessment of £1, 7s. 11d. In 1880-81, the actual area under cultivation was 98,226 acres. Cereals and millets occupied 75,519 acres; pulses, 14,364 acres; oil-seeds, 8382 acres; fibres, 330 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 54 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 4 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 85 men. Land revenue, £11,727.

Sháhápur.—Chief town of Sháhápur Sub-division, Thána District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Agra road about 54 miles north-east of Bombay, and about 1¾ miles from the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The town stands on the Bhádangi stream, a feeder of the Bhátsa river, and about 5 miles from the foot of Máhuli fort. Population (1881) 2124, namely, Hindus, 1923; Muhammadans, 192; Pársís, 5; and Christians, 4. Head-quarters of a *mámlatdar;* contains the usual public offices; school and dispensary. A fair, attended by upwards of 3000 people, is held on the great night of the *Maháshivrátri* festival in February; and a second and larger fair takes place about a fortnight afterwards at the *Holi* full-moon (March-April).

Sháhápur.—Town in Sángli, one of the southern Maráthá States, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 50′ 5″ N., long. 74° 33′ 56″ E. Population (1881) 10,732, namely, males 5415, and females 5317. Hindus number 9269; Muhammadans, 994; Jains, 378; and Christians, 91. Sháhápur is the most important trading place in Sángli State. The Population is chiefly composed of bankers, traders, and weavers. Silk-dyeing is carried on to a great extent. The town is governed by a municipal body. Dispensary and school.

Sháhára. — Town and municipality in Khandwá *tahsíl*, Nimár District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2266, namely, Hindus

1923, and Muhammadans 343. Municipal income (1882-83), £57; average incidence of taxation, 6d. per head.

Sháhbandar. — Sub-division of Karáchi District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 23° 35′ and 25° N. lat., and between 67° 20′ and 68° 48′ E. long. Area, 3378 square miles. Population (1881) 117,362, namely, males 64,841, and females 52,521; occupying 22,651 houses, in 1 town and 360 villages. Hindus numbered 12,205; Muhammadans, 103,450; Sikhs, 972; non-Hindu aborigines, 729; and Christians, 6.

Sháhbandar consists mainly of a flat, alluvial plain, forming part of the delta of the Indus, and cut up by numerous creeks, the chief of which are the Kori channel (which is believed to have been formerly a mouth of the Eastern Nárá), and the Pinyári or Sír river. Large tracts are covered with mangrove and tamarisk jungle. The south-western portion is annually inundated, and the belt bordering the sea affords excellent grazing ground for large herds of buffaloes. Number of canals in Sháhbandar, 152, with an aggregate length of about 800 miles. Government forests, 13, with an area of 38,287 acres. Game and fish abound. The principal crops are rice, occupying 76 per cent. of the total cultivated area, and *bájra*, 13 per cent. The average yield per acre of cleaned rice on good land is about 560 lbs. Wheat, cotton, tobacco, and sugar-cane are also grown. In 1882-83, the area assessed to land revenue was 257,662 acres; and the area under actual cultivation, 115,953 acres. The total area held in *jágír*, or revenue-free, is estimated at 45,000 acres. The annual value of the imports, which are principally cloth, grain, drugs, oil, *ghí*, sugar, tobacco, pepper, areca-nut, and copper and brass vessels, is estimated at about £35,000; and the exports, mainly agricultural produce, at £70,000. The manufactures comprise salt, coarse blankets, and leathern and iron goods. Fairs, 13. Aggregate length of roads, 350 miles; number of ferries, 34.

In 1881-82, the total revenue of Sháhbandar Sub-division amounted to £29,626, of which £27,028 was derived from imperial and £2598 from local sources. The chief items are the land-tax, *abkári* or excise, and stamp duties. Total number of police, 136. Subordinate civil court at Mirpur Batoro. Criminal courts, 8. Police circles (*thánás*), 19. Municipal town, 1, namely, Mirpur Batoro. Subordinate jails at Mirpur Batoro and Sujáwál. Number of schools, 6, with a total of 224 pupils. Prevalent diseases, intermittent fevers. Dispensary at Mirpur Batoro.

Sháhbandar. — *Táluk* of the Sháhbandar Sub-division, Karáchi District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1388 square miles. Population (1881) 27,814, namely, males 15,327, and females 12,847; occupying 5593 houses, in 107 villages. Hindus number 2739;

Muhammadans, 24,694; Sikhs, 192; and non-Hindu aborigines, 189. In 1882-83, the area assessed to land revenue was 75,610 acres; and the area under actual cultivation, 33,568 acres. Revenue, £7518. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 27 men.

Sháhbandar (*King's Port*).—Chief town of Sháhbandar *táluk*, Sháhbandar Sub-division, Karáchi District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 24° 10′ N., and long. 67° 56′ E., in the delta of the Indus, 30 miles south-west of Mugalbhin, and 33 miles south of Sujáwál. Population (1881) less than 2000. Sháhbandar stood formerly on the east bank of the Malir, one of the mouths of the Indus, but it is at present 10 miles distant from the nearest point of the river. The great salt waste commences about a mile to the south-east of the town, and on its westward side are extensive jungles of long *bin* grass. It was to Sháhbandar that the English factory was removed from Aurangábád when the latter place was deserted by the Indus; and previous to the abandonment of the factory in 1775, it supported an establishment of 14 vessels for the navigation of the river. The disastrous flood which occurred about 1819 caused material changes in the lower part of the Indus, and hastened the decay of Sháhbandar, which is now an insignificant village. Carless states that the native rulers of Sind had a fleet of 15 ships stationed here. Vessels entered by the Richal, the only accessible mouth, and passing into the Hajámro through what is now the Khedewári creek, ascended that stream to about 10 miles above Ghorebári, where it joined the Malir. Sháhbandar is the head-quarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and of a *táppádár*; police *thánás* or circle, with a force of 13 men.

Sháhbáznagar.—Large village in Sháhjahánpur *tahsíl*, Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 56′ 5″ N., and long. 79° 55′ 6″ E., on the river Garra, 3 miles from Sháhjahánpur town, of which it may be said to form a suburb. Population (1881) 3259. The town is named after its founder, Sháhbáz Khán, who settled here and built a fort about the same time as the foundation of Sháhjahánpur town in the middle of the 17th century. His descendants remained in possession up to the time of the Mutiny, when the estate was confiscated for rebellion, and bestowed upon Maulvi Shaikh Khair-ud-dín, Deputy Collector at Bareilly.

Sháhbázpur.—Village in Kalyánpur *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 55′ 40″ N., long. 80° 39′ 35″ E., 7 miles from Bindki, and 13 miles from Fatehpur town. Population (1881) 1203, chiefly Kurmís and Baniyás. Police outpost station. Good market.

Sháhdádpur.—*Táluk* of the Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. This *táluk* was until recently a part of Lárkhána

Sub-division, and was formed out of parts of Sujáwál, Rato Dero, and Kambar *táluk*. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thání*), 1; regular police, 19 men. Revenue, £8054.

Sháhdádpur.—*Táluk* of the Hála Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 733 square miles. Population (1881) 55,593, namely, males 30,293, and females 25,300; occupying 8316 houses, in 1 town and 111 villages. Hindus number 6801; Muhammadans, 43,658; Sikhs, 2915; and non-Hindu aborigines, 2219. In 1882–83, the area assessed to land revenue was 53,969 acres; and the area under actual cultivation, 48,074 acres. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 31 men. Revenue, £1386.

Sháhdádpur.—Chief town of Sháhdádpur *táluk*, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 25° 56′ N., and long. 68° 40′ E., on the Jámwah Canal, 15 miles north-east of Hála, and 40 miles north-east of Haidarábád city. Population (1881) 2068. Seat of a *múkhtiárkár's* office, with the usual public buildings. Local trade in grain, oil-seeds, sugar, and cloth, valued at £6000; transit trade in *bájra*, wheat, rice, and cotton, valued at about £10,000. Chief manufacture, oil. Sháhdádpur is said to have been founded two centuries ago by one Mír Sháhdád.

Sháhdara.—Village in Lahore District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 40′ N., and long. 74° 20′ E., on the west bank of the Ravi, nearly opposite Lahore city, from which it is distant about 6 miles. Population (1881) 3847. Contains the mausoleum of the Emperor Jahángír and his wife Núr Jahán, and the tomb of Asaf Khán, brother of the empress, in a beautiful garden, a favourite resort of the residents of Lahore. The Sikhs committed great depredations upon all the buildings, carrying off much of the marble facings and enamelled work to decorate their own temple at Amritsar (Umritsur). Sháhdara is the second station from Lahore on the Punjab Northern State Railway.

Sháhdara.—Town and municipality in Ghaziábád *tahsíl*, Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 40′ 5″ N., and long. 77° 20′ 10″ E., near the left bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, about 31 miles south-west of Meerut city, and a station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The town was founded by the Emperor Sháh Jahán, who gave it its present name of 'Royal Gate,' and designed it as an emporium for the supply of grain to his troops. Sacked by Suráj Mall Ját, of Bhartpur, and plundered by the soldiers of Ahmad Sháh Duráni just before the battle of Pánípat. Population (1881) 6552, namely, Hindus, 4853; Muhammadans, 1505; Jains, 132; and Christians, 62. Municipal income (1883–84), £210. Manufacture of sweetmeats. Large trade in shoes and leather; important

sugar refineries. Police station, post-office, and handsome new *sarái* or native inn.

Sháh Dheri.—Village and ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Sháhganj.—Town in Khutáhan *tahsíl*, Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 2′ 42″ N., long. 82° 43′ 36″ E., on the metalled road to Faizábád, 8 miles north-east of Khutáhan town. The town owes its origin to the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, Shuja-ud-daulá, who built a market-place, a *báradari*, and a *dargah* or tomb in honour of the famous Mecca saint, Sháh Hazrat Alí. Population (1881) 6317, namely, Hindus 4708, and Muhammadans 1609. At the commencement of British rule, Sháhganj was, and still remains, a thriving mart, second only to Jaunpur in commercial importance. Large centre of cotton trade, with markets on Tuesdays and Saturdays. School, post-office, police station, dispensary, and station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. A house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes, realizing £208 in 1882–83.

Sháhganj (or *Mukimpur*).—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated about 10 miles from Faizábád town. Founded by a Mughal on the village land of Mukimpur; seized by Rájá Darshan Singh, whose fort and residence became celebrated during the Mutiny of 1857. Population (1881) 3191, namely, 2622 Hindus and 569 Muhammadans. Mosque, 2 temples, and vernacular school.

Sháhgarh.—Chief town of a tract bearing the same name in Bandá *tahsíl*, Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 19′ N., and long. 79° E., 40 miles north-east of Ságar town. Originally part of the Gond kingdom of Mándlá, it continued till 1857 to be the head-quarters of an independent chief of ancient lineage. Population (1881) 2155, namely, Hindus, 1747; Muhammadans, 241; Kabírpanthís, 43; Jains, 123; and 'other,' 1. Sháhgarh stands at the foot of a lofty hill range, with jungle on nearly every side. The small fort, now in ruins, on the east of the village, contained the Rájá's palace. At the villages of Báretá, Amarmau, Hírápúr, and Tigorá, all in the north of the tract, iron-ore is smelted and sent to Cawnpur. Markets are held every Tuesday and Saturday; Government boys' school, girls' school, and dispensary.

Sháhi. — Canal in Gurdáspur, Amritsar, and Lahore Districts, Punjab.—*See* HASLI.

Shahiwál.—Town in Sháhpur *tahsíl*, Sháhpur District, Punjab.—*See* SAHIWAL.

Sháhjahánpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 35′ and 28° 28′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 23 and 80° 25′ 45″ E. long. Area (1881), 1745 square miles. Population, 856,946 souls. Sháhjahánpur forms

the easternmost District of the Rohilkhand Division. It is bounded on the north-west and north by Pilibhít and Bareilly (Bareli) Districts; on the east by the Oudh District of Kheri; on the south by Hardoi District, and by the Ganges, which separates it from Farukhábád District; and on the west by Budáun and Bareilly Districts. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of SHAHJAHANPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sháhjahánpur consists of a long narrow tract, running upward from the Ganges in the south-west towards the Himálayas, reaching to within 3 miles of the Sardá river on the north-east, nearly at right angles to the river system of the Rohilkhand plain. Hence its natural features depend almost entirely upon the various streams which have cut themselves deep channels through the alluvial soil of the Gangetic basin. The north-eastern corner, beyond the Gúmti, presents an appearance not unlike that of the *tarái* or damp submontane belt. A large area still remains under forest, or lies otherwise waste. A scanty population inhabits this malarious tract; but water rises close to the surface, and the natural fertility of the soil is only marred by the feverish exhalations.

The next section, between the Gúmti and the Khanaut, passes from a rather wild and unhealthy northern region to a densely inhabited strip along the southern river, consisting of a productive loam, well cultivated with sugar-cane and other remunerative crops. The Khanaut falls into the Deoha or Garra just below Sháhjahánpur city; and the triangle enclosed between the confluent streams, though fertile in the immediate neighbourhood of their valleys, consists of a thinly peopled country, overgrown with thorn and *dhák* jungle.

The section between the Deoha and the Garái comprises much marshy land; but south of the latter river, the country rises in a sandy ridge, till it reaches the valley of the Rámgangá, through which the stream wanders in changing courses, destroying and re-forming its banks with great rapidity. Thence to the Ganges stretches a continuous lowland, consisting of marshy patches alternating with a stiff clay soil, and requiring irrigation in parts. This is supplied by the Sot and other streams, which are utilized by being dammed up at particular places, and the water thus stored is distributed in channels, often to great distances. Cultivation is here less easy and less remunerative. In the bed of the Ganges, at the extreme south of the District, are lowlands covered with high grass and brushwood.

The Rámgangá and the Deoha or Garra change their channels in a most arbitrary manner; the Rámgangá to an extent perhaps unparalleled in the case of any river of equal volume. Each rapidly replaces the land destroyed by fresh alluvial deposits; and there are thus two broad lines of rich soil crossing the District. These tracts of alluvial deposit, alternating with hard clay, occupy, with the great sandy ridge

that lies between the valleys of the Rámgangá and Deoha, the whole southern and central parts of the District. The northern part may be roughly divided into two tracts—(1) the moist *tarái*-like tract comprising Khutár *parganá* and the northern part of Pawáyan; and (2) the rich sugar-producing country about Pawáyan and Barágáon. There are in each tract minor variations, narrow ridges of light soil above the smaller rivers and streams, or small tracts of hard soil in depressions near the larger *jhíls* or lakes.

The Rámgangá forms the main waterway of the District, being navigable as far as Kola Ghát, near Jalálábád, whence considerable quantities of cereals and pulses are shipped in country boats by Cawnpur traders for the Ganges ports. A few swampy lakes (*jhíls*) in the lower portions of the District afford irrigation for the spring crops in their neighbourhood. No large pasture-grounds exist anywhere, but cattle are sent in large herds from the northern *parganás* to graze in Nepál during the cold weather, returning at the commencement of the rains.

Khutár *parganá*, in the north of the District, contains a wide area of still unreclaimed jungle, consisting chiefly of *sál*, but not now containing any large trees. The jungles are, however, of great value, as furnishing large quantities of timber for house-building purposes. Two smaller tracts of the same description of jungle exist in Pawáyan *parganá*—one on the river Gúmti, and one on the Khanaut; but in the rest of the District, the jungle consists simply of dwarf *dhák* and thorn bushes, and is almost confined to the hardest and poorest soil in Nigohi, Jalálábád, and Jamaur *parganás*. The total of this unreclaimed area, consisting of forest, *dhák* jungle, open grass land, etc., amounted at the time of the land settlement to 226½ square miles, or 17 per cent. of the whole District area. The only mineral product of Sháhjahánpur is *kankar*, or nodular limestone, either burnt into lime, or used in its raw state for road metalling.

Feræ Naturæ.—Leopards are not uncommon in the jungle tracts in the north of the District; and a wandering tiger or lynx is occasionally shot. Spotted deer frequent the northern jungle, and *nílgái* and wild hog are found in small numbers in the patches of *dhák* scrub scattered about the District. The antelope is met with in small numbers almost everywhere, and in large herds on the highlands near the Gúmti, and in the valley of the Ganges. Smaller game comprises floriken, hare, black and grey partridge, quail, sand-grouse, and pea-fowl, found almost everywhere. The large ponds and marshes abound in water-fowl of all sorts; and several kinds of geese, ducks, teal, and snipe afford excellent sport for about four months during the cold season.

History.—Sháhjahánpur possesses little separate history of its own

before its annexation by the British in 1801. During the early Musalmán times, it always formed part of Kather proper, or the country of the Katheriya Rájputs, nearly the whole of its *parganás* lying east of the Rámgangá; and it was then included under the government of Budáun. Sháhjahánpur town was founded in the reign of Sháh Jahán by Nawáb Bahádur Khán, a Pathán, who named it in honour of the Emperor. About 1720, Alí Muhammad Khán, who had risen into power at the head of his Rohillá clansmen, defeated the Governors of Bareilly (Bareli) and Morádábád, and himself assumed the rule of those two Districts, together with Sháhjahánpur. On his death in 1751, Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the guardian of his sons, became leader of the Rohillás, and defeated the imperial troops sent against him. Sháhjahánpur remained under the Bareilly authorities till 1774, when the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh overran Rohilkhand with the aid of Warren Hastings. The Rohillás, however, had never gained complete control over the eastern portion of Sháhjahánpur District, though their power was firmly established in the west. The Gaur or Katheriya Thákurs also retained their independence among the wild wastes of the north. Sháhjahánpur, indeed, lying on the border between Oudh and Rohilkhand, formed a sort of debateable land between the two Provinces; but the sympathies and connections of the Sháhjahánpur Patháns lay always with Oudh rather than with the Rohillás. The Nawáb Wazírs held Rohilkhand from 1774 till 1801, when it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Lucknow.

Thenceforward, our rule was never disturbed until the Mutiny, although the District bordered upon the most turbulent part of Oudh. In 1857, however, Sháhjahánpur became the scene of open rebellion. The news of the Meerut (Merath) outbreak arrived on the 15th of May; but all remained quiet till the 25th, when the sepoys informed their officers that the mob intended to plunder the treasury. Precautions were taken against such an attempt; but on the 31st, while most of the officers, civil and military, were at church, some of the sepoys forced their way into the building and attacked them. Three Europeans were shot down at once; the remainder closed the doors, and aided by their servants, together with a hundred faithful sepoys, held the church against the mutineers. The other officers then joined them, and the whole party escaped, first to Pawáyan, and afterwards to Muhamdi. The mutineers burnt the station, plundered the treasury, and made their way to the centre of local disaffection at Bareilly.

A rebel Government, under Kádir Alí Khán, was proclaimed on the 1st of June. On the 18th, Ghulám Kádir Khán, the hereditary Nawáb of Sháhjahánpur, passed through on his way to Bareilly, where he was appointed Názim of Sháhjahánpur by Khán Bahádur Khán. On the 23rd the Nawáb returned to his titular post, and superseded Kádir

Alí. He remained in power from June 1857 till January 1858, when our troops reoccupied Fatehgarh. The Nawáb of Fatehgarh and Firoz Sháh then fled to Sháhjahánpur, and on to Bareilly. After the fall of Lucknow, the Nána Sáhib also fled to Sháhjahánpur, but remained only ten days, and proceeded onward to Bareilly. In January, the Nawáb put to death Hámid Hassan Khán, Deputy Collector, and Muhammad Hassan, subordinate judge, for corresponding with the English. On the 30th of April 1858, the British force under Lord Clyde reached Sháhjahánpur. The rebels fled to Muhamdi, and the British went on to Bareilly on the 2nd of May, leaving only a small detachment to guard the station. The rebels then assembled once more, and besieged our troops for nine days; but Brigadier Jones' column relieved them on the 12th, and authority was then finally re-established.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the number of inhabitants at 986,096 persons. That of 1865 showed a total of 1,018,117, being an increase of 32,021 persons, or 3·2 per cent. The Census of 1872 gave the population as 951,006, showing a further decrease of 67,111 persons, or 6·6 per cent., since 1866; and of 35,090 persons, or 3·5 per cent., in the whole nineteen years. These returns yield, however, fallacious inferences, if compared with the area, which increased by 20 square miles in the first twelve years, and decreased by 605 square miles, or 35·1 per cent., in the seven years from 1865 to 1872, owing to the transfer of Puranpur *parganá* to Pilibhít District. The real rate of increase may best be seen from the figures representing the density of population, which amounted to 427 persons per square mile in 1853, 437 in 1865, and 549 in 1872. It must be borne in mind that the *parganá* transferred to Pilibhít between 1865 and 1872, lying close to the foot of the Himálayas in the pestilential *tarái*, had a much sparser population than any other portion of the District.

At the last Census in 1881, the population was returned at 856,946, showing a real decrease of 94,060, or 9·9 per cent., since 1872. This decrease is wholly due to the effects of the famine of 1877-78, in which Sháhjahánpur suffered terribly, the mortality from starvation, or diseases caused by privation, being estimated at not less than 150,000. For details of this famine, see the section of this article, *post*, on Natural Calamities.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1745·7 square miles; number of towns 6, and of villages 2020; houses, 123,640. Average density of population, 491 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·16; persons per town or village, 423; houses per square mile, 70·8; inmates per house, 6·9. Total population 856,946, namely, males 460,064, and females 396,882; proportion of males, 53·6 per

cent. The excessive proportion of males is doubtless due to the former prevalence of female infanticide; but the Infanticide Act has been put in force in certain villages of the District, and is working well for the suppression of the practice. In 1881, in five clans of Rájputs, Ahírs, Ahars, Gújars, and Játs, suspected of infanticide and proclaimed as such to the number of 129,886, the proportion of females was as low as 43·2 per cent. That the Act is working satisfactorily is proved by the fact that of 30,461 children under ten years of age belonging to the above tribes, females numbered 14,259, or 46·7 per cent. Classified according to sex and age, Sháhjahánpur contained in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 173,119, and girls 143,393; total children, 316,512, or 36·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 286,945, and females 253,489; total adults, 540,434, or 63·1 per cent.

Religion.—As regards religious distinctions, the population is classified as follows:—Hindus, 735,244, or 85·8 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 120,214; Christians, 1408; Sikhs, 78; and Pársís, 2. Of higher caste Hindus, Bráhmans number 59,366; Rájputs, 60,398; Gosains, 2616; Bháts, 1680; Baniyás, 22,864; and Káyasths, 11,282. The lower or Súdra castes, who form the bulk of the population, include the following:—Kúrmí, the principal agricultural class, and most numerous caste in the District, 103,958; Chamár, 85,481; Kachhí, 59,058; Ahír, 65,216; Kahár, 34,965; Korí, 22,771; Telí, 21,943; Dhobí, 17,232; Pásí, 17,186; Gadariá, 16,662; Barhái, 16,067; Bhurjí, 14,361; Nái, 14,334; Dhanuk, 11,633; Lohár, 10,069; Kumbhár, 8993; Bhangí, 7228; Kalwár, 6915; Sonár, 5185; Gújar, 3163; Loniyá, 2877; Lodhí, 2413; Kathik, 2221; Tambulí, 1940; and Málí, 1845.

Of the Muhammadans, only 181 are recorded as Shiás by sect in the Census Report, the remainder being all Sunnís. Classified by race, as distinguished from religion, the Musalmáns consist of three classes—*Milkís*, so called because their ancestors were the class to whom principally *milks* or revenue-free grants of lands were given by the Muhammadan rulers of the country. They are sub-divided into Sayyids and Shaikhs, and are reputed to be the descendants of Arabs. The Patháns or Afgháns, and the Mughals, are descended from immigrants into India from beyond the north-west. The Indian Muhammadans, or descendants of converts from Hinduism, include 677 Rájputs and Mewatís by descent. In the *khadár* of the Ganges, in Jalálábád *tahsíl*, a peculiar class of Musalmáns called Pankhias are found in small isolated hamlets. These profess to be strict Muhammadans, but transgress the law of Islám by eating turtles, crocodiles, and other animals usually regarded as forbidden food. They appear to be a fairly well-to-do cultivating class, and their hamlets

show a stock of cattle, goats, and poultry much larger than that possessed by ordinary Hindu cultivators.

The Christian population consists of—Europeans, 942; Eurasians, 6; and natives, 460. The different sects include the Churches of England and Rome, Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, and Wesleyans. The American Baptist Mission has had a station at Sháhjahánpur since 1859, with several schools for boys and girls in the city, one teaching up to the university entrance standard. There is also a Christian village at Panápur, 10 miles east of the city, connected with a boys' orphanage under charge of the Mission, comprising about 900 acres of land laid out in small farms and cultivated by about 300 native Christians. The children of the orphanage are fed, clothed, educated, and instructed in various trades by the Mission, which receives a Government grant-in-aid of £25 a month. The Mission altogether maintains 26 day schools in the District, 18 for girls, and 8 for boys, attended in 1882 by 303 girls and 627 boys.

Urban and Rural Population.—Sháhjahánpur contains six towns with more than five thousand inhabitants, namely, SHAHJAHANPUR, population (1881) 74,830; TILHAR, 15,351; JALALABAD, 8025; KHUDAGANJ, 6925; MIRANPUR KATRA, 5949; and PAWAYAN, 5478. The urban population thus disclosed amounts to 116,558, or 13·6 per cent. of the District population, leaving 740,388, or 86·40 per cent., as forming the rural population. The only two municipal towns, however, are Sháhjahánpur and Tilhár. Total municipal income (1883–84), £7316, of which £5818 was derived from taxation in the shape of octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3d. per head of the population (92,963) within municipal limits. The police and conservancy arrangements of the other towns is provided for by a small house-tax levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Of the 2020 minor villages, 829 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 754 between two hundred and five hundred; 322 between five hundred and a thousand; 97 between one thousand and two thousand; 13 between two thousand and three thousand; and five between three thousand and five thousand.

Material Condition of the People.—In the central portion of the District, the people are well off, and inhabit a richly cultivated plain, scarcely inferior to that of the Doáb. In the extreme north, however, agriculture is backward, waste tracts are numerous, and the people are poor and miserable like their neighbours in the *tarái.* In the south, also, where the swampy tract between the Rámgangá and the Ganges alternates with stretches of stiff clay, the condition of the agricultural classes is much less prosperous. The best class of houses in towns rarely cost more than £200; the common huts of the peasantry, about £1. The latter consist merely of mud walls roofed with thatch.

As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 distributes the total male population among six great classes. The first or professional class numbers 7803, including 4372 engaged in the general government, 1228 in military defence, and 2203 in the learned professions or in literature. The second or domestic class numbers 1931, and comprises all males employed as private servants, washermen, water-carriers, barbers, sweepers, innkeepers, etc. The third or commercial class numbers 7588, and includes all persons who buy or sell, or keep or lend money or goods, such as bankers, money-lenders, brokers, shopkeepers, etc., 2338; and persons engaged in the carriage of men or goods, such as pack-carriers, carters, etc., 5250. Of the fourth or agricultural class, besides the 225,509 males engaged in agriculture, the Census returns show 1270 persons engaged about animals, such as shepherds, etc., making a total of 226,779. The fifth or industrial class numbers 41,030, including all persons engaged in industrial arts and mechanics, such as dyers, masons, carpenters, perfumers, etc., 3016; those engaged in textile manufactures, such as weavers, tailors, cotton-cleaners, etc., 18,456; preparers of articles of food or drink, such as grain-parchers, confectioners, cooks, etc., 9840; and dealers in all animal, vegetable, or mineral substances, 9718. The sixth or indefinite class numbers 174,933, comprising all general labourers, 21,050; and persons of independent means, male children, and unspecified, 153,883.

Agriculture.—The course of tillage follows the ordinary rule of the North-Western Provinces, consisting of the *kharíf* or autumn harvest—chief staples, cotton, rice, *bájra*, and *joár;* and the *rabí* or spring harvest, including wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and peas. Sugar-cane is grown in the low-lying lands, and Indian corn on ground capable of bearing two crops a year. Of the total District area of 1745·7 square miles, 1089·6 square miles were returned in 1883–84 as under cultivation, 463·7 square miles were available for cultivation, 173·5 square miles were uncultivable waste, while 18·9 square miles were non-assessed or held revenue-free. The total crop area in 1883–84 (including lands bearing two harvests in the year) was returned at 730,819 acres, as follows:—*Rabí*—wheat and barley, 290,933 acres; pulses, 44,170 acres; oil-seeds, 516 acres; miscellaneous, 12,194 acres. *Kharíf*—rice, 96,241 acres; millets, 152,977 acres; cotton, 2665 acres; oil-seeds, 1582 acres; miscellaneous, 88,578 acres. The crops belonging to neither season were—sugar-cane, 38,509 acres; and vegetables, 2454 acres.

There are no irrigation canals in Sháhjahánpur, nor does there appear any need for them, as the rainfall is copious, and the water level only from 12 to 15 feet below the surface. Irrigation is abundantly furnished by wells, tanks, ponds, and the damming up of the minor rivers and streams. In 1883–84, the area thus irrigated was

returned at 229,807 acres. Manure is employed where obtainable, but the poverty of the cultivators seldom permits them to let their land lie fallow. The land tenures belong to the standard types of the Province. The country, however, has been too recently occupied to have acquired such complicated holdings or undergone such minute sub-division as in the Lower Doáb. The horned cattle of the District are small and weak, and good draught oxen can only be obtained by importation from beyond the Ganges. Government has made several attempts to improve the breed, but the people show no disposition to avail themselves of the facilities offered to them.

Land Tenures, Rent, etc.—At the time of the settlement of the District, out of a total of 3063 revenue-paying estates in Sháhjahánpur, 2191 were held under *zamíndárí*, and 872 under *pattidárí* tenure. The area alienated in perpetuity in rent-free grants of land, made by the *zamíndár* proprietors, amounted to 11,712 acres, or a little over 1 per cent. of the total area. Cultivating tenures are divided into the two primary classes of proprietary and non-proprietary holdings. The fields cultivated by proprietors are called *sír* or homestead lands. The non-proprietary cultivators are either tenants with a right of occupancy, or tenants-at-will. Under the operation of the present rent-law, tenants-at-will are always on the way to acquiring the status of privileged tenants with rights of occupancy; the only qualification necessary being continuous cultivation of the same lands (other than *sír* lands) for twelve years. At the time of settlement, the proprietors held themselves 13·42 per cent. of the cultivated area as *sír* land; occupancy tenants, 61·31 per cent.; and tenants-at-will, 25·27 per cent. One reason for the large proportion of occupancy tenants is said to be the universal prevalence of money rents all over the District, except in the worst parts of Pawáyan and Khutár *parganás*.

The total male adult agricultural population in Sháhjahánpur District in 1881 was returned at 225,509, made up as follows:—Landed proprietors, 8468; estate servants and agents, 1047; tenant cultivators, 178,352; and agricultural labourers, 37,642. The population entirely dependent on the soil, however, numbered 622,593, or 72·65 per cent. of that of the whole District. Average area cultivated by each male adult agriculturist, 3·13 acres. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon the land, £139,760, or an average of 4s. per cultivated acre. Rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £219,868, or an average of 6s. 2¾d. per cultivated acre. Custom, rather than competition, has regulated the rates of rent in this District, and the higher rates are still much the same as they were in 1818. The lower rates, however, were enhanced at the time of settlement by an average of 6½ per cent. The following is a statement of the maximum and minimum rates prevailing for each of the six

principal classes of land:—Homestead (*gauháni*) land, from 7s. 6d. to 16s. an acre; first-class loam (*domat*), from 4s. 6d. to 10s. an acre; second-class loam, from 3s. to 7s. 6d. an acre; clay (*matiyár*), 3s. 6d. to 8s. an acre; sand (*bhúr*), from 2s. 3d. to 5s. an acre; and hard clay (*dhánkar* and *khápat*), from 2s. 3d. to 5s. an acre. Rates of rent are determined quite as much by the respectability of the tenant as by the quality of the soil, the lowest rates being paid by Bráhmans, Rájputs, and high-class Muhammadans; and the highest by the lower castes of Hindus and inferior orders of Muhammadans.

The following statement of the prices per cwt. of agricultural produce for the three years 1861, 1871, and 1881, which may be regarded as normal years, shows the steady advance in prices which has been made of late years—Wheat, 1861, 3s. 1¾d.; 1871, 4s.; and 1881, 5s. 4d. per cwt. Barley, 1861, 2s. 7d.; 1871, 3s. 1½d.; and 1881, 4s. 1d. per cwt. *Bájra*, 1861, 2s. 10½d.; 1871, 3s. 11½d.; and 1881, 4s. 7d. per cwt. *Joár*, 1861, 2s. 9d.; 1871, 3s. 11½d.; and 1881, 4s. 3d. per cwt. Common rice, 1861, 4s. 11d.; 1871, 5s. 11d.; and 1881, 7s. 2d. per cwt. Best rice, 1861, 8s. 5d.; 1871, 18s. 8d.; and 1881, 15s. per cwt. Wages have risen in proportion. Coolies and agricultural labourers who were paid from 2d. to 2¼d. a day in 1858, received from 3d. to 3½d. in 1882; while the wages of skilled labourers, such as smiths, carpenters, and masons, have risen from 4½d. to 6d. and upwards a day, in the same period.

Natural Calamities.—Sháhjahánpur suffers from drought and famine, though its proximity to the hills sometimes saves it from the worst extremities to which neighbouring Districts are exposed. The great famine of 1783–84, though severely felt in Rohilkhand, did not press so heavily upon this Division as upon Agra and the south-west. In 1803–04, two years after the cession, rain completely failed for the autumn crops. In 1825–26, drought again occurred, but did not bring about famine in the strictest sense. In 1837–38, the autumn rains failed, but a slight fall in February saved the harvest in part, though great dearth of grain ensued. The famine of 1860–61 was severely felt throughout Rohilkhand, and Sháhjahánpur suffered like its neighbours, though it escaped the extreme misery which fell upon the contiguous District of Budáun. In the famine of 1868–69, Sháhjahánpur escaped lightly, although during the period of pressure, lasting for seven weeks, the suffering was extremely severe.

Perhaps the District suffered more severely in the famine of 1877–79 than on any previous occasion in the present century. A series of bad harvests had followed the previous scarcity of 1868–69, and the heavy demands by the beginning of 1877 for the export of grain to Southern India caused such a depletion of stocks, as to convert what would otherwise have been a severe scarcity into actual

famine. On the 7th August 1877, the Collector reported 'roaring hot winds, and not a vestige of green anywhere.' Although a little rain fell towards the end of August, prices of grain had risen beyond the purchasing power of the poorest class early in September; and the *kharíf* or autumn harvest was a total failure. A timely fall of rain, however, early in October enabled the sowings for the *rabí* or spring crops to be made, the requisite seed corn being provided by Government, while small money loans were arranged for from the *mahájans* through the *tahsíldárs* in the interior of the District, on the security of the landholders. By December the spring sowings were over, and relief works were started, in the shape of earthwork and the collection of road materials for those able to labour, and a poorhouse for the helpless and infirm, while high-caste women who do not appear in public received assistance in their own homes. But the cultivating classes generally declined to submit to what they deemed the indignity of road-work, and preferred living as best they could on wild pot-herbs (*ság*), which they could gather in the neighbourhood of their own homes, to earning the wages offered on the works. For artisans and labourers in the city, work was provided by the municipality. The consequence of this entire substitution of green food for the ordinary coarse grains consumed by the peasantry was that their strength failed, and they succumbed in large numbers to the cold at the end of December and beginning of January.

The *rabí* harvest in 1878 was generally fair, notwithstanding some partial loss from hailstorms and superabundance of moisture; and the high prices prevailing did much to recoup the cultivators. But the condition of the day-labourers still caused grave anxiety. The autumn rains, although delayed, fell in sufficient abundance to ensure the prospects of the ensuing *kharíf* harvest; and relief works were closed by the middle of November, and the poorhouses by the end of December 1878. The mortality caused by the famine was very heavy; 60,659 deaths are reported to have occurred between November 1877 and October 1878. The after effects of famine, in the deterioration of the strength of the people, were terribly illustrated in the fever epidemic which raged during 1879 and part of 1880. The registered death-rate, which stood at 29·37 per thousand in 1877, rose to 57·04 per thousand in 1878, and to 53·59 per thousand in 1879, falling again to 34·30 per thousand in 1880.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway is the main channel for the commerce of Sháhjahánpur. It enters the District near Kaheliá, and leaves it near Fatehganj, after a course of 39 miles within its limits. There are stations at Kaheliá, Rosa Junction, Sháhjahánpur, Tilhár, and Miranpur Katra. Four metalled roads also form great arteries of traffic, namely, the Rohilkhand Trunk

Road; the road from Pawáyan through Sháhjahánpur to Jalálábád; from Lucknow to Bareilly *viâ* Sháhjahánpur and Tilhár; and from Fatehgarh through Jalálábád to Miranpur Katra. Total length of roads, 337 miles. Cereals and pulses are carried down the Rámgangá by Cawnpur traders, who send their boats to Kolaghát, near Jalálábád. Grain and raw sugar are conveyed on the Deoha from Sháhjahánpur. Some through traffic exists from Pilibhít, where boats are built and despatched down stream, laden with produce. A considerable quantity of timber is also floated down from Pilibhít. Sugar is largely manufactured, and forms the chief export of the District. It formerly went by cart to Agra and other trans-Jumna marts, salt and cotton being imported in return; but most of this traffic now finds an outlet by the railway, which also conveys the cotton from Chandausí, the chief market for that staple in Rohilkhand. European goods, metals, and salt form the main items of import trade. The principal manufacture under European superintendence is that of sugar, started thirty years ago at the Rosa factory, near Sháhjahánpur, by Messrs. Carew & Co. The factory was destroyed during the Mutiny, but was restored, and has been continued ever since. Rum is also distilled here, and largely sold to the Commissariat Department. The works are connected with the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway by a short branch line $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and are capable of turning out 600,000 gallons of rum, and 120,000 *maunds* of sugar. The still-head duty due to Government on rum sold to the public (exclusive of that supplied to the Commissariat Department) amounts to nearly £30,000 a year.

Administration.—Sháhjahánpur is the seat of a Civil and Sessions Judge, whose civil jurisdiction extends also over the adjoining District of Budáun. He holds criminal sessions at Budáun town alternately with the Judge of Bareilly. The District staff comprises a Collector-Magistrate, Joint Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, and uncovenanted Deputy Magistrate, besides a sub-deputy opium agent, and the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The total amount of revenue—imperial, municipal, and local—raised in the District in 1876 amounted to £191,508, or 3s. $10\frac{3}{4}$d. per head of the population. Of this sum, the land-tax contributed £118,442. In 1883–84, the total revenue of the District amounted to £186,162, of which the principal items were—Land revenue, £118,637; stamps, £13,786; excise, £32,807; provincial rates, £14,149; assessed taxes, £2356; registration, £753. The total cost of civil administration, as represented by the pay of officials and police, in 1883–84, was £31,821. Number of civil judges, 13; number of magistrates, 30. In 1883 the regular and town police force consisted of 648 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £6635. There is also a village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*) numbering 2081 in

1883, maintained at a cost of £7518. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2729 officers and men, giving one man to every ·6 square mile of area, or to every 314 of the population. Total cost, £14,153, equal to an average of £8, 2s. 1½d. per square mile of area, or 3¾d. per head of population. The District jail at Sháhjahánpur contained during the same year a daily average of 320 prisoners, of whom 15 were females. Postal communication is carried on by 9 imperial and 10 local post-offices; and the telegraph is in operation at all the stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

The educational returns in 1883 showed a total of 140 Government aided and inspected schools, with a roll of 4563 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided and uninspected schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 5922 boys and 136 girls as under instruction, besides 17,080 males and 317 females able to read and write but not under instruction. The schools conducted by the American Baptist Mission have been already alluded to in a previous section of this article.

For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into 4 *tahsíls* and 12 *parganás*.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sháhjahánpur is much damper than that of the Upper Doáb, and somewhat more so than the other portions of the Rohilkhand plain. Six weeks seldom pass at any time of the year without a fall of rain; and the prevailing wind sets easterly from the cloudy summits of the Himálayas. The heat during the hot months does not equal that of the neighbouring Districts, and excessively hot winds seldom blow for more than five or six days in each year. Except in May and June, the country has a fresh and green aspect, very unlike the parched brown stretches of the Doáb. The average rainfall for 32 years ending 1881 amounted to 38·41 inches, the maximum during that period being 54·5 inches in 1867, and the minimum 18·3 inches in 1868. From January to May, the average fall is 3·38 inches; from June to September, 33·41 inches; from October to December, 1·62 inches. The mean annual temperature is said to be about 75° F., but no accurate thermometrical returns are available. Except in the extreme north, near the *tarái*, the climate generally is healthy; but fevers prevail in that portion of the District every spring and autumn. The valley of the Sot is also very malarious. The total number of deaths reported in 1883 was 28,126, or 32·71 per thousand, as against an average of 46·58 per thousand for the previous five years. The mortality caused by the epidemic fever of 1879 and 1880 following on the famine of 1878, has been already alluded to. The District contains six charitable dispensaries—at Sháhjahánpur, Katra, Gularia, Jalálábád, Tilhár, and Pawáyan. In 1883 they afforded relief to

32,205 persons, of whom 1167 were in-door patients. [For further information regarding Sháhjahánpur, see the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, vol. ix., by F. H. Fisher, Esq., C.S. (Government Press, Allahábád, 1883). Also the *Report on the Settlement of Sháhjahánpur District*, between 1867–68 and 1875, by R. G. Currie, Esq., C.S.; the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Provincial Government.]

Sháhjahánpur. — South-eastern *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the three *parganás* of Sháhjahánpur, Jamaur, and Kánt. The Garra river forms the boundary between Sháhjahánpur and Jamaur *parganás*, the latter lying between the Garra river and the Garai *nála*, which last separates it from Kánt *parganá*. Throughout Sháhjahánpur *parganá*, the surface of the country is level, except where it is broken by the Khanaut river; and the soil is a good loam called *dumat*. Well irrigation is ordinarily needed, but the soil retains moisture well, and one watering is usually sufficient for wheat. Jamaur *parganá*, with the exception of a narrow strip of *dumat* along the right bank of the Garra, lies low and is composed of a hard clay soil, requiring constant irrigation for the spring crops. Kánt *parganá*, with the exception of the valley of the Garai, is composed of a light sandy soil, which, though not equal in productiveness to the *dumat* of Sháhjahánpur *parganá*, nevertheless retains moisture well, and produces fair crops in ordinary years without the necessity of any extensive irrigation.

Area, 401 square miles. Population (1881) 252,028, namely, males 133,206, and females 118,822. Average density of population, 628·5 persons per square mile. Hindus, 192,487; Muhammadans, 58,113; Christians, 1362; and 'others,' 66. Of the 467 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 359 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 80 between five hundred and a thousand; and 27 between one thousand and five thousand. The only place with upwards of five thousand is Sháhjahánpur city. Area assessed for Government revenue, 392 square miles, namely, 242 square miles cultivated, 108 square miles cultivable, and 42 square miles uncultivable waste. Total Government land revenue, £29,062, or including local rates and cesses, £32,602. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £61,262. The chief tenure is *zamíndárí*, but there is not a single large proprietor in the *tahsíl*. In 1884, Sháhjahánpur *tahsíl* contained (including the District head-quarter courts) 3 civil and 10 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 357 officers and men.

Sháhjahánpur. — Chief town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 53′ 41″ N., and long. 79° 57′ 30″ E.; on the left

bank of the river Deoha or Garra, crowning the high ground just above its junction with the Khanaut. An old fort overhangs the confluence; and a large masonry bridge, built by Hakím Mehndi Alí, spans the smaller river. The city was founded in 1647, during the reign of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, whose name it bears, by Nawáb Bahádur Khán, a Pathán. There is nothing of any special note in the history of the city, apart from that of the District generally, during the 210 years which elapsed between its foundation and 1857, when it became the scene of open rebellion during the Mutiny. The incidents of 1857 and 1858 are described in sufficient detail in the historical section of the District article (*q.v.*).

Population (1872) 72,140; (1881) 77,936, namely, males 39,293, and females 38,643. Hindus number 37,811; Muhammadans, 39,080; Christians, 979; and 'others,' 66. Number of houses, 13,776. Municipal income (1883-84), £6372, of which £5184 was derived from taxation in the shape of octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4d. per head. Sháhjahánpur is a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, and is also connected by good roads with Lucknow, Bareilly, Farukhábád, Pilibhít, Muhamdi, and Hardoí. The main street runs from near the old fort for a distance of about 1¾ mile through the heart of the city to Bahádurganj market, near its northern limits. From Bahádurganj, the city extends outside the cantonments for fully a mile, crossing the road to Bareilly and stretching out along the Pilibhít road. In the opposite direction to the south-east, it extends across the Khanaut stream, near Hakím Mehndi's bridge. From north to south, the extreme length of the city is upwards of four miles, while the breadth is seldom more than one mile, and generally less. The population is only dense in certain quarters, and patches of cultivated land and gardens of fruit-trees are found everywhere.

The *tahsílí* courts, police station, and the dispensary are situated in the centre of the city, in the main street. The police lines, jail, and high school are on the edge of the city, overlooking the valley of the Khanaut. Farther north are the District, civil, criminal, and revenue courts. The civil lines consist of a small piece of land bounded on three sides by the cantonment, and on the fourth by the native city; but the house accommodation is said to be insufficient for the requirements of the civil residents. Before the Mutiny, native troops only were stationed at Sháhjahánpur. The military force now consists of a wing of a European and a wing of a native infantry regiment. The barracks, built after the Mutiny, are comfortable and well-constructed buildings. The station contains an English church, and three churches for native converts maintained by the American Methodist Mission, which also supports one large and several small schools for boys and

girls, an orphanage, and a dispensary. In addition to the high school and mission school, the town contains a Government *tahsíli* school, and a municipal free school.

Sháhjahánpur, taking its population into consideration, is a city of comparatively little commercial importance. The only local manufacture is sugar, which, with cereals and pulses, forms the principal export. The Rosa sugar factory and rum distillery is situated on the Garra river, a few miles from the city, with which it is connected by a short branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The three principal markets in the city are Bahádurganj, near the cantonment and civil station; Carewganj, at the other or southern end; and a new vegetable market in the centre of the town, constructed in 1878–79 by the municipality.

Sháhjahánpur.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated on the Bombay-Agra Trunk Road between Guna (Goona) and Indore, 106 miles from the former, and 60 miles from the latter town. Head-quarters of the Sháhjahánpur District of Gwalior. Population (1881) 9247, namely, Hindus, 7168; Muhammadans, 2064; and 'others,' 15.

Shah-ki-dherí.—Village and ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. —*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Sháhlimar.—Gardens and pleasure-ground in Lahore District, Punjab, 4 miles east of Lahore city.—*See* SHALAMAR.

Sháhpur.—A British District in the Punjab, lying between 31° 32′ and 32° 42′ N. lat., and between 71° 37′ and 73° 24′ E. long. Area, 4691 square miles. Population (1881) 421,508 souls. Sháhpur forms the southernmost District of the Ráwal Pindi Division. It is bounded on the north by the Pind Dádan Khán and Talágang *tahsíls* of Jehlam (Jhelum) District; on the east by Gujrát and Gujránwála Districts, the Chenáb river marking the boundary for a portion of the distance; on the south by Jhang District; and on the west by Dera Ismáil Khán and Bannu Districts. Sháhpur is divided into three *tahsíls*—Bherá in the east and Sháhpur in the west, forming the cis-Jehlam portion of the District; and Khusháb, the trans-Jehlam tract. The District stands seventh in order of area, and twenty-fourth in order of population, among the 32 Districts of the Punjab, and comprises 4·40 per cent. of the total area, and 2·23 per cent. of the total population, of the Province. The administrative head-quarters are at the small town of SHAHPUR on the Jehlam river, but BHERA is the largest place in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sháhpur consists of an irregular block of country, artificially demarcated for administrative purposes, and stretching from the western bank of the Chenáb, across the valley of the Jehlam, far into the heart of the Sind Ságar Doáb, and up to the centre of the Salt Range. On either side of the Jehlam, which

divides the District into two nearly equal portions, lie wide upland plains, utterly barren or covered only with coarse low brushwood. Much, however, of this area is composed of good soil only requiring irrigation to make it productive of fine crops; indeed, excepting the *thal* or barren sandy tract of the Sind Ságar Doáb, there is little land that would not repay the labour of the husbandman could he but procure water at a moderate cost. As it is, however, about 83 per cent. of the area still remains untouched by the hand of man; while in the southern half of the District, cultivation is for the most part confined to a strip of land varying from three to fifteen miles in width along the banks of the Jehlam and Chenáb rivers.

But although so large a portion of the surface consists of native prairie, considerable variety exists in the aspect of the country. Beginning from the south-eastern border, the first well-marked natural tract comprises the lowlands of the Chenáb, where percolation from the river spreads fertility over a long belt about 10 or 12 miles in width, along the whole of its course. Above these fruitful and well-watered levels, the *bár* or central table-land of the Jetch Doáb stretches in a monotonous undulating waste of desert or jungle to the valley of the Jehlam. The soil of this upland is naturally good; but the impossibility of obtaining water precludes all hope of cultivation, except in a few hollow basins, where the crops depend upon the capricious rainfall for their whole supply. Population is scanty; villages are few, and separated from each other by great distances. Numerous herds of cattle, however, roam at will over the prairie jungles, and obtain abundant pasturage from the luxuriant carpet of grass which covers the surface after the rains.

A second zone of cultivation fringes either bank of the Jehlam, though not extending so far inland as on the Chenáb. The lowland strips on both sides of the Jetch Doáb are popularly divided into the *hitar*, or alluvial tract immediately bordering the river, and the *nakka*, or slope just beyond the range of percolation. The former contains the most prosperous villages, and is covered throughout its entire length by one unbroken sheet of grain for the *rabí* or spring harvest, without the necessity for artificial irrigation; the latter depends upon the water-supply from wells, and has smaller and more straggling villages scattered at wide distances from one another.

Beyond the Jehlam valley rises a second table-land, the *thal* of the Sind Ságar Doáb, a far more forbidding and desert expanse than the *bár*. Northward, a hard level plain, impregnated in places with salt, and almost devoid of vegetation, stretches away monotonously to the foot of the Salt Range. To the east and south, a sandy plateau runs onward till it merges in the utter desert of Dera Ismáil Khán. The extreme southern portion resembles an angry sea of sand, tossed into

wave-like hillocks, between which lie undulating troughs of short coarse grass.

The north of Sháhpur District is occupied by a part of the Salt Range, which runs right across the Doáb, and rises to its greatest height in Mount Sakeswar, 5000 feet above sea-level. It consists of two divergent chains, which unite again at either end, and enclose a number of rock-bound alluvial basins, interspersed with picturesque lakes. Little patches of rich cultivation are found amid the nooks and valleys of the range, rendered fruitful by the fresh alluvial *detritus* from the surrounding peaks, and watered by the comparatively abundant rainfall of the hill tract. The southern face of the range presents a bold mass of broken and rugged cliffs, whose distorted strata and huge detached rocks give an air of sublimity to the scenery. Many torrents flow through the gorges on its side, and spread fertility over a narrow strip of lowland at the base, known as the *mohár*. Thence an intermediate belt of pasture land, the *danda*, leads on imperceptibly to the wild sandy waste of the *thal*.

The Jehlam (Jhelum) river traverses the District throughout its entire length from north to south. In Sháhpur it is a muddy river, with a current of about 4 miles an hour; average width of the stream in times of flood, about 800 yards, dwindling down in the winter months to less than half this width. A remarkable feature of this river is the sudden freshets to which it is subject. These occur after very heavy rain in the hills, when the swollen stream, overflowing its banks, inundates the country for miles on either side for a day or two, and then gradually subsides within its normal bounds, leaving the soil enriched with a valuable alluvial deposit. The Chenáb, which forms the boundary between Sháhpur and Gujránwála for 25 miles, has a greater volume of water than the Jehlam, but its current is more sluggish, and though impetuous in flood, the average velocity does not exceed 2½ miles an hour. The flood deposits of the Chenáb are inferior in richness and in quantity to those of the Jehlam.

A characteristic feature of Sháhpur District is its system of inundation canals. The remains of ancient cuttings are met with along the edge of the *bár* tract; but these had been allowed to fall into disuse, and have long since silted up. In 1860, one of the channels was experimentally cleared out by the District officer, and the success of the trial induced an enterprising native gentleman to excavate an entirely new canal to irrigate a grant of waste land of which he had obtained a lease. This work was completely successful; and since 1860, twenty-six inundation canals have been constructed for irrigation purposes, of which six are Government works, aggregating 115 miles in length, and irrigating 33,700 acres; and 20 are private canals, with a total length of 235½ miles, and irrigating 43,628 acres.

Forest Conservancy.—Although Sháhpur District contains no large forest trees, it is scantily wooded in parts with ordinary timber and shrubs suitable for fuel and other purposes. In the Khusháb *tahsíl* of the Salt Range tract, 31 *rakhs* with an area of 134,824 acres have been placed under the control of the Forest Department, besides 35 other *rakhs* with an area of 142,920 acres in Bherá *tahsíl* in the elevated *bár* lands between the Jehlam and Chenáb rivers. The predominating trees and shrubs met with in the Salt Range *rakhs* are *sanatha* (Dodonæa viscosa), *bahikar* (Adhatoda Vasica), *phataki* (Celastrus spinosus), *phulahi* (Acacia modesta), *kau* or olive (Olea ferruginea), occasional specimens of *shisham* or *sissu* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *kikar* (Acacia arabica), and *dhák* (Butea frondosa). In favourable localities, such as the summits of some of the higher peaks, many other species are found, such as *kangar* (Pistacia integerrima), *kalar* (Bauhinia variegata), *kamlai* (Odina Wodier), *dhamman* (Grewia oppositifolia), *anár* or pomegranate (Punica Granatum), *lahúra* (Tecoma undulata), *papri* or box (Buxus sempervirens), *khajúr* or wild date-palm (Phœnix sylvestris), *kilu* (Chamærops Ritchieana), *báns* or bamboo (Dendrocalamus strictus). As yet no forest settlement has been effected, and hitherto the work of the Department has been purely protective. A few village communities in the Salt Range enjoy the privilege of pasturing cattle and collecting dry wood in the *rakhs*, while the general proprietary right belongs to Government. The Government rights in the *rakhs* of the *bár* tract in Bherá *tahsíl* are absolute. These *rakhs* produce pasture and wood fuel, consisting chiefly of *jhánd* (Prosopis spicigera), *karíl* (Capparis aphylla), *mula* (Spatholobus Roxburghii), and *váni* (Salvadora oleoides). As yet no wood has been felled, but the pasturage is annually leased to contractors, yielding a revenue of £2250.

Minerals.—Salt is found throughout the hills which derive their name from this mineral, concealed in the red marl which gives to the range one of its most characteristic features. The salt is exceedingly pure, and as the average thickness of the beds is probably not less than 150 feet, the supply appears to be inexhaustible. The salt workings are mainly situated in Jehlam District, and only one mine is worked in Sháhpur, at Wárcha. This mine is a large cave, supported by pillars at irregular intervals. The seam worked is 20 feet thick. The out-turn from the mine in 1883–84 was 190,987 *maunds*, or 6991 tons; average out-turn for the four years ending 1883–84, 146,914 *maunds*, or 5378 tons. The duty realized in 1883–84 amounted to £37,066, against an average of £32,334 for the four years. The miners are paid at the rate of 7s. 6d. per 100 *maunds* of salt excavated by them. The annual cost of the mine and guarding establishment amounts to about £2100 a year.

The other mineral products of Sháhpur are saltpetre, the manufacture of which received a great impulse at the time of the Crimean War, but has now almost dwindled away. Lignite, iron, and lead are found in the Salt Range, but in too small quantities to be practically useful. Gypsum and mica are also found in considerable quantities in the same hills.

Feræ Naturæ.—Tigers, leopards, and wolves are found in the Salt Range; while in the *bár* and flat country generally, are found quail, partridges, sand-grouse, hare, bustard, antelope, wild geese, and ducks. In the hilly tract, the *uriál* or wild sheep, and the *chikor* or hill partridge, are found. The lakes of the Salt Range are the favourite abodes of the scarlet flamingo. Snakes are common in all parts of the District.

History.—Though little definite information can be recovered with regard to the annals of Sháhpur District prior to the decline of the Mughal dynasty, the numerous remains studded about the *bár* clearly prove that at some remote period the whole country between the Chenáb and the Jehlam consisted of a flourishing and well-watered agricultural plain. Mounds of earth, covered with fragments of brick or pottery, lie scattered over the whole table-land, marking the ancient sites of towns and villages in a tract now only inhabited by half-savage pastoral tribes. The historians of Alexander speak of the country as 'teeming with population;' and local tradition affirms that, so late as the time of Akbar, great prosperity extended over the entire *bár*. The present desert condition of the plateau is no doubt attributable to a gradual subsidence of the water level. There are spots where the brick-work of old wells still existing does not extend more than 25 feet in depth; while now, in the same place, water cannot be obtained within 60 feet of the surface, and even when found is usually so brackish as to be unfit for the use of man or beast.

The dawn of authentic history in Sháhpur extends no further back than the reign of Muhammad Sháh, when Rájá Salámat Rái, a Rájput of the Anand tribe, administered Bhera and the surrounding country; while Khusháb was managed by Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, and the south-eastern tract along the Chenáb formed part of the territories under the charge of Mahárájá Kaura Mall, Governor of Múltán. At the same time, the *thal* was included among the dominions of the Balúch families of Dera Ghazi Khán and Dera Ismáil Khán.

During the anarchic period which succeeded the disruption of the Mughal Empire, even this remote region became the scene of Sikh and Afghán incursions. In the year 1757, a force under Núr-ud-dín Bamizai, despatched by Ahmad Sháh Duráni, to assist his son Timúr in repelling the Maráthás, crossed the Jehlam at Khusháb, marched up the left bank of the river, and laid waste the three largest towns

of the District. Bhera and Miáni (Meeanee) rose again from their ruins; but only the foundations of Chak Sánu now mark its former site. About the same time, by the death of Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, Khusháb also passed into the hands of Rájá Salámat Rái. Shortly afterwards, however, Abbás Khán, a Khattak, who held Pind Dádan Khán and the Salt Range for Ahmad Sháh, treacherously put the Rájá to death, and seized upon Bhera. But Abbás Khán was himself thrown into prison as a revenue defaulter; and Fateh Singh, nephew of Salámat Rái, then recovered his uncle's dominions.

After the final success of the Sikhs against Ahmad Sháh in 1763, Chattar Singh, of the Sukarchakia *misl* or confederacy, overran the whole Salt Range, while the Bhangi chieftains parcelled out among themselves the country between those hills and the Chenáb. Meanwhile, the Muhammadan rulers of Sahiwál, Mitha Tiwána, and Khusháb had assumed independence, and managed, though hard pressed, to resist the encroachments of the Sikhs. The succeeding period was one of constant anarchy, aggressive warfare, and territorial changes among the petty princes of the District, only checked by the gradual rise of Mahá Singh, and his son, the great Mahárájá Ranjít Singh. The former made himself master of Miáni in 1783; and the latter succeeded in annexing Bhera in 1803. Six years later, Ranjit Singh turned his arms against the Balúch chieftains of Sahiwál and Khusháb, whom he overcame by combined force and treachery. At the same time, he swallowed up certain smaller domains in the same neighbourhood; and in 1810, effected the conquest of all the country subject to the Siál chiefs of Jhang.

In 1816, the conqueror turned his attention to the Máliks of Mitha Tiwána. The Muhammadan chief retired to Núrpur, in the heart of the *thal*, hoping that scarcity of water and of supplies might check the Sikh advance. But Ranjít Singh's general sank wells as he marched, so that the Tiwánas fled in despair, and wandered about for a time as outcasts. The Mahárájá, however, after annexing their territory, dreaded their energy and influence, and therefore endeavoured to conciliate them by inviting them to Lahore, where he made a liberal provision for their support. On the death of the famous Hari Singh—to whom had been assigned the Tiwána estates—at Jamrúd, in 1837, Fateh Khán, the representative of the Tiwána family, obtained a grant of the ancestral domains from his patron at court, Rájá Dhián Singh. Thenceforward, Málik Fateh Khán took a prominent part in the turbulent politics of the Sikh realm, after the rapidly succeeding deaths of Ranjít Singh, his son, and grandson. Thrown into prison by the opposite faction, after the murder of Dhián Singh, he was released by Lieut. (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who sent him to Bannu on the outbreak of the Múltán rebellion to relieve Lieut.

Taylor. Shortly afterwards the Sikh troops mutinied, and Fateh Khán was shot down while boldly challenging the bravest champion of the Sikhs to meet him in single combat. His son and a cousin proved themselves actively loyal during the revolt, and were rewarded for their good service both at this period and after the Mutiny of 1857.

Sháhpur District passed under direct British rule, with the rest of the Punjab, at the close of the second Sikh war. At the time of annexation, the greater part of the country was peopled only by wild pastoral tribes, without fixed abodes, but moving from place to place in search of grass and water. Under the influence of settled government, they have begun to establish themselves in permanent habitations, to cultivate the soil in all suitable places, and to acquire a feeling of attachment to their regular homes. The Mutiny of 1857 had little influence upon Sháhpur. The District remained tranquil; and though the villages of the *bár* gave cause for alarm, no outbreak of sepoys took place, and the wild tribes of the upland did not revolt even when their brethren in the Múltán Division took up arms. A body of Tiwána horse, levied in the District, did excellent service, and earned for their Máliks the coveted title of Khán Bahádur.

Population.—The Census of 1855 was taken over an area so greatly altered by subsequent territorial changes (as the trans-Jehlam tract then lay chiefly within the old District of Leiah) that detailed comparison with later statistics becomes impossible. A rough calculation, however, would appear to show that the general density of population increased 25 per cent. between that date and 1868; and although this increase may be regarded as high, there can be no doubt that the number of inhabitants has grown with great rapidity ever since the annexation. The enumeration of 1868 disclosed a population of 368,288, on an area corresponding to that of the present District. At the last Census in 1881, the population of Sháhpur was returned at 421,508, showing an increase of 53,220, or 14·4 per cent., in the thirteen years between 1868 and 1881. Much of the increase is due to immigration from Gujránwála, Gujrát, and Jhang, owing to the rapid extension of canal irrigation during late years.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 4691 square miles; number of towns 6, and of villages 651; number of houses, 72,084; number of families, 98,905. Total population, 421,508, namely, males 221,676, and females 199,832; proportion of males, 52·6 per cent. Average density of the population, 90 persons per square mile. But though the density of population is thus low, when the desert area is taken into account, the proportion of inhabitants to the cultivable surface is really very high, being upwards of 400 per square mile in the tilled portions of the Salt Range. The cultivable land, indeed, is very much sub-divided,

and is barely sufficient for the support of its inhabitants. Villages per square mile, 14; persons per village, 642; houses per square mile, 19; persons per house, 5·85. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 89,567, and girls 81,194; total children, 170,761, or 40·5 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 132,109, and females 118,638; total adults, 250,747, or 59·5 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the Muhammadans form the great bulk of the population, being returned at 357,742, or 84·9 per cent.; Hindus number 50,026; Sikhs, 4702; Christians, 29; and Jains, 9. The principal Muhammadan tribes include—Balúchís, 8865; Sayyids, 8625; Shaikhs, 7499; Patháns, 3076; and Mughals, 2335. These are Muhammadans by race descent. The following tribes are mainly Muhammadans by conversion of Hindus and aboriginal races in the time of the early Muhammadan invasions, and most of them still contain a proportion of Hindus — Rájput, 82,290; Awan, 48,485; Ját, 34,508; Chuhrá, 28,297; Juláha, 22,472; Muchí, 15,314; Kumbhár, 11,769; Machhí, 11,156; Tarkhán, 10,270; Khokhar, 10,265; Arain, 8574; Mirási, 8344; Nai, 7541; Dhobí, 5624; Kassáb, 5202; Lohár, 5074; Sonár, 3597; and Telí, 2112. The castes which still remain almost entirely Hindus or Sikhs, are the Bráhman, 5462; Arora, 35,017; and Khattri, 15,015. The land-owning classes and the great mass of the village servants are Muhammadans; the Hindus and Sikhs being almost confined to the mercantile and official classes and their priests. The proportion of Hindus is much greater in towns than in villages. The six towns contain two-fifths of the entire Hindu population of the District, and the remainder are absorbed in the larger villages, since in the smaller ones not a single Hindu is met with, except here and there a petty shopkeeper.

Town and Rural Population.—The following six towns are returned in the Census of 1881—SHAHPUR, the civil head-quarters station of the District, population (1881) 7752; BHERA, 15,165; KHUSHAB, 8989; SHAHIWAL, 8880; MIANI, 8069; and GIROT, 2776. Total urban population, 51,631, or 12·2 per cent. of that of the whole District. These towns are all municipalities, with a total municipal income in 1883–84 of £3405, or an average of 1s. 4d. per head. Of the 651 villages or collections of hamlets comprising the rural population, 198 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 210 between two and five hundred; 144 between five hundred and a thousand; 71 between one and two thousand; 20 between two and three thousand; and 8 between three and five thousand. As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the adult male population of Sháhpur into the following seven main classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 4171; (2) domestic and menial class, 4619; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders,

carriers, etc., 5197; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 60,884; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including all artisans, 30,635; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, 13,972; and (7) unspecified, 12,631.

Agriculture.—The total area under cultivation in 1883–84 amounted to 557,513 acres, of which 336,655 acres were artificially irrigated. Of the remaining area, 796,912 acres in the *bár* tract are utilized for grazing purposes; 1,156,890 acres would be cultivable with the assistance of irrigation; while 496,773 acres are uncultivable waste. The spring harvest forms the main crop of the District. Wheat, the spring staple, covers nearly half the cultivated area; while spiked millet and cotton make up the chief items of the autumn harvest. Among the more valuable commercial crops, sugar-cane is grown only in the valley of the Chenáb, and poppy in the Jehlam lowlands between Sháhpur and Bhera. Wheat thrives best in the alluvial soils that fringe the two rivers, where it is the only crop grown, as after it is cut floods inundate the whole valley, and only subside in time for the next sowing. It also grows luxuriantly in the rich hollows and basins among the Salt Range, where the cool climate admirably suits it.

The area under the principal crops in 1883–84 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 214,314 acres; *bájra*, 80,860 acres; *joár*, 17,865 acres; gram, 13,100 acres; oil-seeds, 23,468 acres; and cotton, 22,901 acres. Rice was grown on only 383 acres. The use of manure and the rotation of crops are little understood. Land from which a spring crop has been taken is occasionally sown afresh for the autumn harvest. In the Salt Range, the richness of the soil admits of successive sowings without any repose; in the tract below the hills, the torrents bring down perpetual supplies of fresh *detritus;* in the alluvial fringe of the rivers, the floods fertilize the soil by their annual deposit of silt, and so render possible a constant succession of double crops; but elsewhere the land lies fallow every second year. The average out-turn per acre of the principal products was returned as follows in 1883–84:—Wheat, 780 lbs.; inferior grains, 430 lbs.; oil-seeds, 350 lbs.; cotton, 140 lbs. The agricultural stock in the same year consisted of—cows and bullocks, 199,740; horses, 2826; ponies, 1527; donkeys, 10,860; sheep and goats, 202,293; camels, 18,174; carts, 482; and ploughs, 51,015. An annual horse show is held every spring, at which prizes are given for the encouragement of horse-breeding. A cattle fair was held in connection with the horse show in 1882–83. The anarchy which followed the break-up of the Delhi Empire, and the grinding nature of the Sikh rule, have resulted in the disintegration of the village communities. Most of the tenures at present in existence belong to the type known as *bháyáchára.* Only 66 villages retain the ancient communal type. Agricultural labourers receive their wages entirely in kind, usually in the form of a

proportion of the crops grown by their labour. Day-labourers receive from 3d. to 6d. per diem; skilled labourers, from 6d. to 1s. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows in 1883:—Wheat, 29½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9½d. per cwt.; barley, 42 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 42 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 8d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 46 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 5d. per cwt.; and best rice, 6 *sers* per rupee, or 18s. 8d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commercial importance of the District depends almost entirely upon its connection with the Salt Range, Miáni having been from time immemorial the centre for the salt of the MAYO MINES in Jehlam District. Opium and *sajji* (carbonate of soda) are bought up by traders from Ráwal Pindi, Siálkot, and Kashmír (Cashmere); but most of the surplus produce of Sháhpur finds its way down the river in country boats to Múltán and Sukkur (Sakhar). The chief exports are wheat, cotton, wool, *ghí*, and saltpetre; the principal imports — sugar, English piece-goods, and metals. The Povindah merchants from Afghánistán bring down madder, dried fruits, gold coins, and spices in the winter, which they exchange for country cloth. Scarves of silk and cotton are manufactured at Khusháb; turned and lacquered toys at Sahiwál; felt at Bhera; and blankets throughout the District. The Salt branch of the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lála Músa to Bhera runs through Sháhpur District for a distance of 26 miles, with stations at Haria Málikwál, Miáni, and Bhera. Good fair-weather roads intersect the District in several directions, the chief being that from Lahore to Bannu and Dera Ismáil Khán, which passes Sháhpur and Khusháb, and that which runs along the left bank of the Jehlam from Pind Dádan Khán to Múltán. Tolerable roads also open up the Salt Range; and the two main rivers are navigable throughout their whole course within this District, affording water communication for 112 miles. Total length of roads, 1077 miles.

Administration.—The District staff comprises a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioner, and the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The total amount of revenue raised in the District in 1872–73 amounted to £469,955, of which sum the land-tax contributed only £43,514. The largest item is that of salt and customs, amounting to as much as £418,579. The collection of the salt-tax makes Sháhpur the most valuable District in point of revenue in the Punjab; but the mines from which the revenue is derived mostly lie within the neighbouring District of Jehlam. Excluding salt, which is merely a matter of account, the revenue of Sháhpur District in 1883–84 amounted to £55,290, of which £39,019 was derived from the land-tax. Number of civil judges, 10; magistrates, 6. The total regular and town police force in 1883 amounted to 463 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 10·1 square miles of area and every 908 of the population. The District jail, near

the civil station of Sháhpur, contained in 1883 a daily average of 244 prisoners.

Education still remains at a very low ebb, except in the four larger towns, while the nomad peasantry of the *bár* regard it with positive aversion. The District contained in 1883–84, 44 Government schools, with a total of 2778 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 3562 boys and 97 girls as under instruction in 1881, besides 10,588 males and 130 females able to read and write but not under instruction. There is one printing press at Sháhpur jail.

For administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into 3 *tahsíls*.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the plains is hot and dry, but in the Salt Range the temperature is cool and the rainfall more abundant. The annual rainfall at Sháhpur civil station for 28 years ending 1881 averaged 14·64 inches, the maximum during that period being 36 inches in 1868–69, and the minimum 11·2 inches in 1866–67. No record of temperature is now kept, but the registers of 1868–70 give a mean temperature in the shade of 80·65° F. The principal endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, dysentery and diarrhœa. Goitre prevails on the right bank of the Chenáb, and guineaworm at the foot of the Salt Range. The total number of deaths reported in 1883 was 11,424, showing a death-rate of 27 per thousand; of these, 7549, or 17·91 per thousand, were assigned to fevers. The District contains 11 charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1883 to 82,226 persons, of whom 820 were in-patients. [For further information regarding Sháhpur, see the *Gazetteer of Sháhpur District*, compiled and published under the authority of the Punjab Government (Lahore, 1883–84). Also the *Revised Settlement Report of Sháhpur District*, conducted between 1854 and 1861 by Mr. G. Ouseley, C.S.; the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government.]

Sháhpur.—*Tahsíl* of Sháhpur District, Punjab; lying in the Jetch Doáb portion of the District, and consisting of a narrow belt of cultivation along the Jehlam (Jhelum) river, together with a wide sterile upland tract in the rear. Area, 1032 square miles, with 239 towns and villages; houses, 22,874; families, 28,423. Total population, 122,633, namely, males 64,585, and females 58,048; average density, 119 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 101,831; Hindus, 19,304; Sikhs, 1481; and Christians, 17. Of the 239 towns and villages, 168 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 46 between five hundred and a thousand; 23 between one and five thousand; and 2 between five and ten thousand. Principal crops, wheat, *bájra*, barley, gram, cotton, and poppy. The administrative staff, including officers attached to the District head-quarters, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Assistant Com-

missioner, 2 Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, and 1 *munsif*. These officers preside over 6 civil and 5 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 5; strength of regular police, 88 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukidárs*), 136.

Sháhpur. — Town and administrative head-quarters of Sháhpur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 16′ N., and long. 72° 31′ E., two miles from the left bank of the Jehlam (Jhelum) river, exactly opposite KHUSHAB, on the road from Lahore to Dera Ismáil Khán. It was formerly on the river bank, but of late years the Jehlam has been receding in the direction of Khusháb. Founded by a colony of Sayyids under one Sháh Shams, whose descendants still form the proprietary body. Sháh Shams' tomb is situated east of the town. He is revered as a saint, and a large annual fair, attended by some 20,000 persons, is held at the tomb. Population of Sháhpur village (1881), 5424; and of the civil station, which lies 3 miles to the east, 2328. Total population of town and civil station, 7752, namely, Muhammadans, 5253; Hindus, 2408; Sikhs, 74; and 'others,' 17. Number of houses, 1024. Municipal income, £131. The roads of the station are wide, and well shaded by trees, and watered in the hot weather from an inundation canal which passes through the town. Good crops of grain and grass are raised in the lands attached to the station, chiefly by the aid of canal irrigation. Small, neatly-laid-out *bázár*, with wide streets. Hospital, two schools, and three public gardens. An annual horse and cattle fair is held at the civil station. Court-house, *tahsíli*, police station, staging bungalow, *sarái* (native inn), and town hall.

Sháhpur.—Village in Kosi *tahsíl*, Muttra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 54′ 5″ N., and long. 77° 33′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 2221. Now a petty agricultural village, but formerly the head-quarters of a large estate yielding £2800 a year, conferred by Lord Lake upon Nawáb Ashraf Alí, who ordinarily resided here, and the remains of whose fort lie outside the village. During the Nawáb's lifetime, Sháhpur was a populous and important town.

Sháhpur. —Town and municipality in Gurdaspur District, Punjab. Population in 1881, 1258, comprising 912 Hindus, 336 Muhammadans, and 10 Sikhs. Number of houses, 362. Municipal revenue (1880–81), £110; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9d. per head of the population.

Sháhpur.—Village in Ságar *tahsíl*, Ságar District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2364, namely, Hindus, 1976; Jains, 299; Muhammadans, 88; and Christian, 1.

Sháhpur. — Village in Burhánpur *tahsíl*, Nimár District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3812, namely, Hindus, 3473; Muhammadans, 233; and Jains, 106.

Sháhpur.—Hill range in Mándlá District, Central Provinces; north

of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, while the Johilá flows below. Forms part of the watershed between Eastern and Western India. The scenery is wild and desolate, the only inhabitants being a few small colonies of Gonds and Baigás. The Gejar and Ganjái stream down from the highlands in a series of waterfalls, the finest of which is 60 feet high; behind the falls yawn dark caverns, tenanted by wild beasts and by reputed evil spirits. Most of the range, however, is under the immediate protection of Mahádeva.

Sháhpur.—Petty State of the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 4 villages, with 1 proprietor or tribute-payer. Area, 10 square miles. Population (1881) 1237. Estimated revenue, £650; of which £46, 8s. is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £14, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sháhpura.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political super intendence of the Rájputána Agency. Estimated area, 400 square miles. Population (1881) 51,750, namely, males 27,217, and females 24,533; dwelling in 1 town and 117 villages, and in 10,849 houses. Density of population, 129·37 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·29; houses per square mile, 27·19; persons per house, 4·77. Hindus number 48,333; Muhammadans, 2771; Jains, 643; and Christians, 3. The Hindus are sub-divided into—Bráhmans, 6118; Rájputs, 1776; Mahájans, 4130; Gújars, 4806; Játs, 4229; Minas, 922; Bhíls, 1841; Chamárs, 4172; Dhakurs, 357; Balals, 2126; and 'others,' 17,856. The Muhammadans by tribes—Shaikhs, 769; Sayyids, 45; Mughals, 13; Patháns, 399; and 'others,' 1545. Revenue, excluding alienations, about £25,000. The country is flat and treeless, but fertile; much of it is pasture land.

The Rájá of Sháhpura also holds a fief under the Mahárání of Udaipur or Mewár, consisting of 80 villages, with an estimated population of about 16,000 persons, and a revenue of £3500. Tribute of £300 is paid to the State of Udaipur. The Rájá is thus a feudatory both of the British Government and of Udaipur. The ruling family is of the Sesodia Rájput clan, being descended from a former Rúná of Udaipur. The founder of the house was Suráj Mall, a younger son of the Rúná, from whom the late chief was tenth in lineal descent. Suráj Mall received as his portion the *parganá* of Kherar in Udaipur; and his son also acquired from the Emperor Sháh Jahán, in reward for his gallant services, a grant of the *parganá* of Phulia out of the crown lands of Ajmere, upon condition of furnishing certain horse and footmen for service. He abandoned the town of Phulia and founded the present town of SHAHPURA. In 1848, the Rájá of Sháhpura received a *sanad* from the British Government fixing the amount of his tribute at £1000 per annum, with the proviso that if the customs duties levied in Ajmere were abolished he should also cease

to collect such duties, and in consideration of the loss of revenue his tribute should be reduced to £200. The chief also holds a *sanad* guaranteeing to him the right of adoption. The present Rájá, Dhiráj Nahar Singh, was born in 1855. A dispensary; vaccination is encouraged. Two schools. The military force of the State consists of 12 guns, 20 artillerymen, 160 cavalry, and 335 infantry.

Sháhpura.—Capital of Sháhpura State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 23′ 45″ N., long. 76° 1′ E. School, in which Hindi and arithmetic are the chief subjects taught, attended in 1881 by 130 pupils. In 1875, a girls' school was established; but it was closed soon afterwards, though endeavours were being made in 1884 to resuscitate it. Population (1881) 10,652, namely, males 5453, and females 5199. Hindus number 8729; Muhammadans, 1920; and Christians, 3.

Sháhpurá.—Town in Rámgarh *tahsíl*, Mándlá District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2588, namely, Hindus, 2023; Muhammadans, 151; Jains, 5; Christians, 2; and non-Hindu aborigines, 407.

Sháhpuri.—Small island, situated at the mouth of the Náaf river in Chittagong District, Bengal; famous as having afforded the *casus belli* of the first Anglo-Burmese war. The Burmese claimed possession of the island, although it had for many years been in the undisputed occupation of the British. Tolls were levied upon boats belonging to Chittagong; and on one occasion, the demand being resisted, the Burmese fired upon the party and killed the steersman. This act of violence was followed by the assemblage of armed men on the eastern side of the Náaf, and universal consternation pervaded the villages in this the most remote and unprotected portion of Chittagong District. On the night of the 24th September 1823, the Burmese proceeded to enforce their claim to the island of Sháhpuri; a thousand men landed on the island, overpowered the guard, killed and wounded several of the party, and drove the rest off the island. As soon as this was known at Calcutta, a detachment of troops was sent to dislodge the Burmese, who, however, had previously retired. The occupation of Sháhpuri by a military force had the effect of arresting for a time the hostile demonstrations of the Burmese on the Chittagong frontier. But not long afterwards the Rájá of Arakan was ordered to expel the English from Sháhpuri, and officials from Ava proceeded to take possession of the island, which had been temporarily abandoned on account of its unhealthiness. This and other acts of hostility rendered war inevitable; and in a proclamation dated the 24th February 1824, the grounds on which the first Burmese war was declared were made known.

Shahr Sultán.—Town and municipality in Alípur *tahsíl*, Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 35′ N., and long. 71° 2′ E., 1½ mile south of the Chenáb, on the road leading south from Muzaffargarh town. Population (1881) 2132, namely, Hindus, 1213; Muhammadans,

913; and Sikhs, 6. Number of houses, 275. Municipal income (1883–84), £155, or an average of 1s. 5½d. per head. The town is favourably situated for trade; and as in all towns in this part of the country, beams are placed over the streets and covered with matting, so as to form a shady arcade. Police station, and primary school.

Sháhzádpur.—Town in Siráthu *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the banks of the Ganges about a mile north of the Grand Trunk Road, and 6 miles east of Siráthu town; lat. 25° 39′ 55″ N., long. 81° 27′ E. Population (1881) 3496. Formerly a flourishing town, and famous for its stamped cloth, and large trade in saltpetre; but now decayed and declining in population. Station of the Grand Trigonometrical Survey; post-office; ferry across the Ganges. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Shaikháwati (*Shekháwati*).—A Province of Jaipur State in Ráj-putána; situated between lat. 27° 20′ and 28° 33′ N., and long. 74° 40′ and 76° 5′ E. It is bounded on the north-east by the Punjab States of Loháru and Patiála, on the south-east by Jaipur proper, on the south by Jodhpur or Márwár, and on the west and north-west by Bíkaner. The area is estimated at 5400 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1881, is 418,686 souls. In its physical aspects, the more fertile part of Shaikháwati resembles Jaipur; but a large portion of the soil is sandy desert, like that of Bíkaner. There are no perennial rivers; but a small stream, which rises in the northern part of Jaipur, flows northward for some distance through Shaikháwati, ultimately losing itself in the sand. There is an important salt lake in the Province, called Kachor-Rewas; it is not worked by any means to its full capacity, but the yearly turn-out of salt is about 6000 tons. The minerals of Shaikháwati are important; the copper-mines near Khetri being perhaps the most valuable in India. The ores are copper pyrites, mixed, it is said, with grey copper-ore (fahlerz or tetrahedrite); some carbonates also occur, and native copper has been found. Near the surface, also, in the shales, blue vitriol is produced by the decomposition of the pyrites. In the same mines cobalt is also obtained, the ore occurring in small veins. These mines have evidently been worked for a very long period. Some of the hills in the neighbourhood are honeycombed with old excavations; and the heaps of slag from the furnaces have accumulated in the course of time, until they now form a range of hillocks several hundred feet in length and from 30 to 40 feet high.

History, etc.—Shaikháwati is politically a confederacy of petty Rájput chieftains, bound to each other and to their common overlord at Jaipur by the ties of clanship. The Shaikháwats are a sept of that Kachwáha clan whose head is the Mahárájá of Jaipur or Amber. They derive their name from Shaikhjí, the grandson of Bálají, who was a

younger son of the Mahárájá of Jaipur in 1389 A.D., and received a portion of this territory in appanage. Shaikhjí was so called from a famous Musalmán saint named Shaikh Burhán, whose shrine near Achrol is still regarded with veneration, and whose prayers had been successfully invoked by Shaikhjí's father for the birth of a son and heir. In commemoration of this incident, every Shaikháwat boy wears for two years from his birth the Musalmán *badiá* or threads, as well as the blue tunic and cap; and the Shaikháwat sportsmen never hunt the wild hog or touch its flesh, although by other Rájputs it is commonly eaten once a year. Moreover, although the lands surrounding the saint's *dargah* belong now to the demesne of the Jaipur Mahárájá, the *dargah* itself is a sanctuary, and rent-free lands are held by about a hundred families descended from Shaikh Burhán. Shaikhjí's father and grandfather had paid as tribute to the Mahárájá all the colts reared on their land; but Shaikhjí so enlarged his power that for some generations the lords of Shaikháwati became independent of the parent State.

From Shaikhjí's great-grandson, Rái Síl, are descended the chieftains of Southern Shaikháwati, who hence have always been known as Ráisilots; and from a younger son of Rái Síl are descended the principal chieftains of Northern Shaikháwati, called the Sádhánis. The chief settlement of the Ráisilots, and the most important principality of Shaikháwati, was at Khandela; whilst the early seat of the Sádhánis was at Udaipur, another town of this territory, not to be confounded with the capital of Mewár. There have been, and still are, many other branches of the family, between whom feuds, conquests, and reconquests have been interminable. Rái Síl himself became chief both of Khandela and of Udaipur by the help of the Delhi Emperor; and he is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as a *mansabdár* of 1250 horse under Akbar. After the fatal battle of Merta, in 1754, had laid Rájputána prostrate at the feet of the Maráthás under De Boigne, Shaikháwati suffered severely from their ravages; most of the towns were sacked, the capital, Khandela, being saved from that fate only by heavy payment. Later on, it was the scene of some of the exploits of the famous adventurer George Thomas, who was called in by a chief of Khandela to aid him against Jaipur. Finally, however, the Shaikháwat chieftains acknowledged the suzerainty of Jaipur, though the bond seems never to have been very close. The leading chiefships are those of Sikar and Khandela, Khetri, and Kotputli.

The custom of equal division on succession to land in Shaikháwati is similar to that which prevails in Maláni, a dependency of Jodhpur that holds much the same kind of relation to its parent State that Shaikháwati does to Jaipur; and therein the custom differs from that prevalent elsewhere throughout Rájputána, where the eldest son suc-

ceeds. The custom, however, does not appear to extend to the larger estates and chiefships in Shaikháwati.

Shaikh Budín (*Shekh Budín*).—Hill sanatorium (so called from the shrine of a famous Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Bahá-ud-dín, which crowns its summit) in Bannu (Bunnoo) and Dera Ismáil Khán Districts, Punjab, lying in lat. 32° 17′ 48″. N., and long. 70° 50′ 48″ E., on the border of the two Districts, and jointly administered by the Deputy Commissioners of both Districts. Elevation above sea-level, 4516 feet. Distant from Dera Ismáil Khán town 40 miles north, from Bannu town 64 miles south. The sanatorium crowns a bare limestone rock, which rises abruptly from the low range of Mohar, whose highest point it forms. A few stunted wild olives and acacias compose the only vegetation on the shadeless slope. The heat is frequently excessive, the thermometer ranging inside a bungalow from 88° to 94° F., though mitigated from June to October by a cool south-western breeze. This drawback, combined with the want of sufficient water-supply and the paucity of building sites, renders Shaikh Budín a very inadequate sanatorium. Persons who go up in good health are seldom attacked by illness; but the climate is not bracing enough for constitutions which require a radical change.

Shaikhpurá.—Town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 8′ 30″ N., long. 85° 53′ 11″ E. Population (1881) 12,517, namely, males 5945, and females 6572. Hindus number 8411, and Muhammadans 4106.

Shakargarh.—*Tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; comprising the whole trans-Rávi portion of the District, except Narot *parganá*. Area, 501 square miles; towns and villages, 709; houses, 29,592; resident families, 47,508. Total population, 219,511, namely, males 114,617, and females 104,894. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 109,241; Muhammadans, 105,176; Sikhs, 5090; and Christians, 4. Average density of population, 438 persons per square mile. Of the 709 villages and towns, 594 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 83 between five hundred and a thousand; and 32 between one thousand and five thousand. The average annual area under cultivation for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 323½ square miles, or 207,079 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 76,457 acres; barley, 48,198 acres; rice, 11,623 acres; Indian corn, 8523 acres; *moth*, 7009 acres; *joár*, 6899 acres; *bájra*, 2848 acres; gram, 2687 acres; sugar-cane, 9519 acres; cotton, 5783 acres; tobacco, 1151 acres; and vegetables, 1723 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £27,783. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and a *munsif*, who preside over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 48 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 673.

Shakargarh.—Town and fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab.—*See* SHABKADAR.

Shálamár (*Sháhlimár*).—Gardens and pleasure-ground in Lahore District, situated 4 miles east of Lahore city. These gardens were laid out in 1667 by Alí Mardán Khán, the celebrated engineer of Sháh Jahán, in imitation of the garden planned by the Emperor Jahángír at the sources of the Jehlam (Jhelum) river in Kashmír (Cashmere). The garden consisted of seven divisions representing the seven degrees of the Paradise of Islám, of which only three are included in the present area of about 80 acres, the remainder having fallen into decay. In the centre is a reservoir bordered by an elaborately indented coping and studded with pipes for fountains. A cascade falls into it over a slope of marble corrugated in an ornamental carved diaper. During the troublous times of Ahmad Sháh the gardens were neglected, and some of the decorative works were defaced and removed. Ranjít Singh restored them; but at the same time he laid ruthless hands upon the marble pavilions of the central reservoir, using them to adorn the Rámbágh at Amritsar, and substituting structures of brick and whitewash in their stead. The Shálámár Gardens are a favourite resort for fêtes and picnics, and the luxuriant foliage of the mango and orange trees lends itself with admirable effect to illuminations.

Shálí.—Hill in Bhajji State, Simla District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 77° 20′ E. Described by Thornton as rising in a steep and almost inaccessible peak 4 miles south of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and containing on its summit a wooden temple where human sacrifices were formerly offered to the goddess Káli. Elevation above sea-level, 9623 feet.

Shalvari.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency; situated 32 miles east by north of Dhárwár town. Population (1872) 5220; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881.

Shami.—Town in Rádhanpur State, Bombay Presidency; situated on the river Saraswatí, in lat. 23° 41′ 15″ N., and long. 71° 50′ E. Population (1881) 5306, namely, Hindus, 2592; Muhammadans, 2173; and Jains, 541.

Shámli.—North-western *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; comprising a level upland, traversed throughout by the Eastern Jumna Canal, whose distributaries extend over every part of its surface. Area, 461 square miles, of which 268 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 202,233, namely, males 108,479, and females 93,754. Hindus number 139,522; Muhammadans, 61,262; Jains, 1439; and 'others,' 10. Average density, 438·7 persons per square mile. Of the 253 villages and towns, 146 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 59 between five hundred and a thousand; 43 between one and five thousand; and 5 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Land revenue, £32,099; total Government revenue,

£37,548; rental paid by cultivators, £71,239. The *tahsíl* comprises the five *parganás* of Shámli, Thánà Bháwan, Jhanjhána, Kairána, and Bidaulí. In 1884 it contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 68 officers and men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 424.

Shámli.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Shámli *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 29° 26′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 21′ 10″ E., on the bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, 24 miles west of Muzaffarnagar town, on a low unhealthy site. Population (1881) 7359, namely, Hindus, 5607; Muhammadans, 1664; and Jains, 88. The town contains a handsome *bázár*, and carries on a considerable trade with the Punjab, consisting of exports of sugar and imports of salt. The place was originally known as Muhammadpur Zanárdár, but derives its present name from one Shám, who built a market in Jahángír's reign. Held in 1794 by a Maráthá commandant, who fell under suspicion of intriguing with the Sikhs. Lakwa Dáda, the Maráthá governor, despatched George Thomas against the commandant. Thomas stormed the town, and cut to pieces the suspected parties. In 1804, Colonel Burn was surrounded at Shámli by an overwhelming force of Maráthás, but escaped from a desperate position through the opportune advance of Lord Lake. During the Mutiny of 1857, the native *tahsíldár* held the town bravely for the British, but fell at last gallantly defending his post against the insurgents of THANA BHAWAN. Police station, post-office. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Shámsábád.—Town in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 32′ 15″ N., and long. 79° 28′ 40″ E., on the south bank of the Buri Gangá river, 18 miles north-west of Fatehgarh town. Population (1881) 8271, namely, Hindus, 4467; Muhammadans, 3800; and Jains, 4. The town is composed of 33 *muhallas* or wards, which are divided into scattered groups by patches of cultivation. The wards consist as a rule of great clusters of mud huts, surrounding a few large brick houses or hemming in a road. The principal thoroughfare is a long brick-paved street of mixed dwellings and shops, from which branch many narrow lanes. A small grain market opens on the south into a larger market-place, shaded by fine tamarind and *ním* trees. Shámsábád is no longer the seat of any important trade or manufacture; but prior to the introduction of English cloth, it was noted for its fine textures, known as *mitha* and *jhuna.* Police station, post-office, school, and *sarái* (native inn). A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Shamsha (or *Shimshupa;* also called the *Kadamba* and the *Kadabakola*).—Tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, in Mysore State. It rises in lat. 13° 25′ N., long. 77° 15′ E., in Túmkúr District near

Deveráy-durga, and flows in a southerly direction to join the Káveri, in lat. 12° 19′ N., long. 77° 18′ E., just below the falls of Sivasamudaram, in Mysore District. In Túmkúr District its waters are utilized to form the great Kadaba tank; and in Mysore District it is crossed by a dam or anicut 9 miles above Maddúr. This anicut has recently been rebuilt by the Public Works Department of hewn stone. It feeds the Maddúr tank, and supplies irrigation channels 12 miles in length, capable of irrigating 2240 acres, and yielding a revenue of £671.

Shámsherganj.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam; situated in lat. 24° 43′ N., and long. 91° 34′ E. There is a considerable river trade, the exports being—rice, oil-seeds, molasses, *sítalpáti* and bamboo mats; and the imports—piece-goods, pulses, spices, and tobacco.

Shanor.—Petty State of the Sankheda Mehwás group, Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 11¼ square miles, containing 6 villages. Estimated revenue, £1013, of which £135 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is a younger branch of the Mándwa family.

Shápur.—Petty State of the Hallár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SHAHPUR.

Sháradánadí (or *Anakapalli*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Rises in the Mádgula Hills, and flowing south-west past Anakapalli and Kásimkota, enters the sea at Wattada. It is much used for irrigation, being crossed by six large anicuts. The total length of the river is about 45 miles.

Shárakpur.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab, comprising the whole trans-Rávi portion of the District. Area, 887 square miles; towns and villages, 379; houses, 21,002; families, 25,033. Total population, 121,451, namely, males 66,485, and females 54,966. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 97,244; Hindus, 16,993; Sikhs, 17,210; and Christians, 4. Average density of population, 137 persons per square mile. Of 379 towns and villages, 316 contain less than five hundred inhabitants, 48 between five hundred and a thousand, and 15 between one and five thousand. Principal crops—wheat, barley, rice, Indian corn, gram, and cotton. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £11,619. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular District and town police, 51 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 102.

Sharakpur.—Town in Lahore District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Sharakpur *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 31° 27′ N., and long. 74° 6′ E., west of the Rávi, and on the bank of the river Degh. Population (1881) 4595, namely, Muhammadans, 3853; Hindus, 546; and Sikhs, 196. Municipal income (1883–84), £345, or an average of 1s. 6d. per head. The town is surrounded by a high and thick mud wall, intersected by

streets paved with brick. The public buildings include the Sub-divisional courts and offices, police station, school-house, and dispensary. The best rice produced in the District is grown in the neighbourhood of this town, on land irrigated from the Degh. Sharakpur is the only town of any importance in the trans-Rávi tract of Lahore, and the centre of a considerable trade in local produce.

Sharavatí ('*The Arrowy*').—River of Southern India, which rises in lat. 13° 44′ N., long. 75° 11′ E., at Ambu-tirtha in Shimoga District, Mysore State; flows in a north-westerly direction through the District of Shimoga, and after breaking through the line of the Western Gháts by a sheer leap of 830 feet over the magnificent Falls of Gersoppa into a pool 350 feet deep, falls into the sea at Honáwar in the Bombay District of North Kánara. In Shimoga District, the stream is crossed by 70 anicuts or dams, from which irrigation channels are drawn having an aggregate length of 26 miles.

Sharretalai.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 129 square miles; containing 38 *karas* or collections of villages. Population (1875) 114,931; (1881) 113,704, namely, males 56,204, and females 57,500, occupying 29,662 houses. Density of population, 881 persons per square mile. Hindus number 83,580; Christians, 26,416; Muhammadans, 3706; and Jews, 2. Of the total Christians, Roman Catholics number 15,738; Syrians, 10,600; and Protestants, 78.

Sharretalai.—Chief town of the Sharretalai *táluk* of Travancore State, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 9° 41′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 23′ 20″ E. Population (1871) 9228 (among whom are many Christians), dwelling in 2190 houses; not separately returned in the Census Report of 1881. The town contains a pagoda, which is the scene of an annual festival; and a Syro-Roman Church, built about 1550 A.D.

Shatal (*Shatul*).—Mountain pass in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab, on the road from Chuára to Kunáwár, over the southernmost ridge of the Himálayas. Lat. 31° 23′ N., long. 78° 3′ E. Mentioned by Thornton as dangerous on account both of the deep snow and cold wind. Elevation above sea-level, 15,555 feet.

Shegáon.—Town in Akola District, Berar, and a station on the Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; situated in lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 76° 46′ E., 24 miles west of Akola town, and about 11 miles from Bálápur and Khámgáon. Population (1881) 11,079, namely, males 5753, and females 5326. Hindus number 9894; Muhammadans, 1062; Jains, 72; Christians, 41; Pársís, 7; and Jews, 3. Before the opening of the railway in 1863, Shegáon had little commerce; but considerable supplies of cotton have of late been brought to the market here instead of to Khámgáon. There are several cotton presses, some under European superintendence.

Travellers' bungalow, *sarái* (native inn), and police station; Government school, and post-office.

Shekháwati.—Province or Division of Jaipur State, Rájputána.—*See* SHAIKHAWATI.

Shekh Budín.—Sanatorium and mountains in Derá Ismáil Khán and Bannu Districts, Punjab.—*See* SHAIKH BUDIN.

Shekohpura.—Ancient town in Háfizábád *tahsíl*, Gujránwála District, Punjab; situated on the road between Háfizábád and Lahore, 22 miles from the former town. Contains a ruined fort, built by the Emperor Jahángír. Prince Dára Shekoh, grandson of Jahángír, from whom the town probably derives its name, is said to have connected it by a cut with the Aik rivulet, and this cut now forms the main channel of the stream. Under Ranjít Singh, Shekohpura became the residence of one of his queens, Ráni Ráj Kauran, better known as Ráni Nakáyan, whose cumbrous brick palace still remains the most conspicuous object in the town. After British annexation, the head-quarters of the District were fixed for a time at this spot; but since the removal of the civil station to Gujránwála, Shekohpura has possessed no importance of any sort, except as a resort for sportsmen. About two miles distant from the town, is a large tank surrounded by handsome flights of steps, with a three-storied *baradári* in the centre. The tank, however—to fill which the cut from the Aik rivulet above mentioned was made—is dry, and indeed is said to have never had water in it. A lofty watch-tower stands beside the tank.

Shellá.—Petty State or confederacy in the Khási Hills, Assam; presided over by four elective chiefs of equal authority, with the title of *wáhadádárs*. Population (1881) 6032; revenue, £70. The natural products include oranges, pine-apples, and betel-nuts. Bamboos are worked into mats and baskets. Limestone is extensively quarried, and both coal and iron are found. Shellá has been for many years a station of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission, who maintain several schools in which English and vernacular are taught, and also a girls' school.

Shendamangalam.—Town in Námkal *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 40′ 30″ N., long. 78° 10′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 12,575, namely, males 5866, and females 6709, occupying 2268 houses. Hindus number 11,687; Muhammadans, 683; and Christians, 205. A considerable amount of iron is smelted here.

Shendúrjána.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar.—*See* SENDURJANA.

Shendurni.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 20° 39′ N., and long. 75° 39′ E., 60 miles south-east of Dhulia, and 12 miles east of Páchora station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 5644. Hindus number 4566; Muhammadans, 924; Jains, 128; Christians, 2; and 'others,' 24.

Shendurni was a grant made to the family priest of the Peshwá, Bájí Ráo. An annual Hindu fair is held here. Post-office.

Sheng-dha-wai (*Shin-da-we*).—A highly venerated pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SHIN-DA-WE.

Sheng-maw (*Shin-maw*). — Pagoda on Tavoy Point, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SHIN-MAW.

Sheng-mút-tí (*Shin-mot-tí*).—The most famous pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SHIN-MUT-TI.

Shenkotta.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 65 square miles, containing 70 *karas* or collections of villages. Population (1881) 30,477, namely, males 14,688, and females 15,789, occupying 8759 houses. Density of population, 469 persons per square mile. Hindus number 27,513; Muhammadans, 2145; Christians, 819. Of the Christians, Roman Catholics number 386; Protestants, 375; Syrians, 58.

Shenkotta. — Chief town of the Shenkotta *táluk* of Travancore State, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 8° 59′ N., and long. 77° 17′ 45″ E., on the main road from Trevandrum and the South Travancore ports, across the Gháts, to Tinnevelli, from which place it is distant about 40 miles. Population (1881) 7882, inhabiting 2214 houses. Several coffee estates have been opened in the neighbourhood of Shenkotta, which is an important centre of trade.

Sheogáon.—Sub-division and town of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SHIVGAON.

Sheopur.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* SEOPUR.

Sher.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 79° 44′ E., near Khamariá in Seoní District, which, after a north-westerly course of 80 miles, falls into the Narbadá (Nerbudda), in lat. 23° N., long. 79° 10′ E., near the centre of Narsinghpur District. It is spanned by a fine stone bridge at Sonái Dongrí in Seoní, which carries the Nágpur and Jabalpur road; and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses it by a lattice girder bridge 8 miles east of Narsinghpur. Coal, but of no commercial value, has been found in the river-bed near Sihorá in Narsinghpur. Principal affluents—the Mácha, Rewá, and Barú Rewá.

Sheraingil.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 143 square miles, containing 88 *karas* or collections of villages. Population (1881) 87,072, namely, males 42,193, and females 44,879, occupying 18,994 houses. Density of population, 609 persons per square mile. Hindus number 72,029; Muhammadans, 13,132; Christians, 1911. Of the Christians, Roman Catholics number 1828; Protestants, 49; Syrians, 34.

Sher Alí.—Port in North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SHIRALI.

Shergarh.—Town in Chháta *tahsíl*, Muttra (Mathúra) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 39′ 50″ E., on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), 8 miles north-east of Chháta town. Population (1881) 4712. The town derives its name from a large fort, now in ruins, built by the Emperor Sher Sháh. The original *zamíndárs* of Shergarh were Patháns, from whom, with the exception of a small share held by a Muhammadan descendant of the old family, the estate passed by purchase to a wealthy banker, Seth Gobind Dás, and was devoted by him to the maintenance of the temple of Dwárakádis at Muttra. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Shergarh.—Ruined village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 83° 46′ 15″ E., 20 miles south-west of Sásserám. This spot was selected by Sher Sháh as the site of a fortress soon after he had begun strengthening ROHTAS, which he abandoned on discovering the superior advantages of Shergarh.

Sherghátí.—Town and municipality in Gayá District, Bengal; situated at the point where the Grand Trunk Road crosses the Murahar, in lat. 24° 33′ 24″ N., and long. 84° 50′ 28″ E. Population (1881) 5862, namely, Hindus 3649, and Muhammadans 2213. Municipal income (1883-84), £112, all derived from taxation; average incidence, 4½d. per head. The town has declined in importance since the construction of the East Indian Railway. There are still to be found here the descendants of skilled artisans, workers in brass, wood, and iron. When Sherghátí formed part of the District of Rámgarh it was known as a centre of crime, which led to the appointment of a special Joint Magistrate in 1814.

Sherkot.—Town in Bijnáur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 19′ 25″ N., and long. 78° 38′ 10″ E., on the bank of the Kho river. Population (1881) 15,087, namely, males 7428, and females 7659. Muhammadans number 10,213; Hindus, 4756; and Jains, 118. Sherkot was formerly the head-quarters of Dhámpur *tahsíl*, and is still the residence of a powerful Rájput family, owners of the Sherkot estate, whose handsome palace, with two Hindu temples attached, stands just outside the town on the north-west. The principal places of business are the Kotra and Sherkot *bázárs*—the former a wide brick-paved roadway, standing on high ground, and flanked with good shops; the latter a long irregular and narrow street in which two carts can scarcely pass each other. The town has a considerable trade in sugar, and is noted for its manufacture of embroidered carpets. The public buildings include a police station, post-office, dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, and *sarái* or native inn. The police and conservancy arrangements of the town are provided for by a small house-tax, yielding about £400 annually.

Shermádevi (*Sheranmahádevi*).—Town in Ambásamudaram *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 8° 40′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 35′ 13″ E., on the Támbraparni river, 12 miles west of Tinnevelli. Formerly head-quarters of the *táluk* of the same name; at present residence of the Head Assistant Collector of the District. Population (1881) 7624; number of houses, 1738. Hindus number 7191; Muhammadans, 61; and 'others,' 372.

Sheroda.—State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SHIRODA.

Sherpur. — Town in Zamániah *tahsíl*, Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 83° 50′ E., on a large island formed by the Ganges, 10 miles east of Gházípur, and 17 miles north-west of Zamániah town. Population (1881) 9030, namely, Hindus 8756, and Muhammadans 274. Number of houses, 1787. Although returned as one town in the Census, Sherpur itself is divided into two parts, and also includes three outlying agricultural villages. Village school.

Sherpur.—Town and municipality in Bogra District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 40′ 20″ N., long. 89° 28′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 3991, namely, Hindus 2712, and Muhammadans 1279. Municipal income (1883–84), £390, of which £298 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 8⅞d. per head. Though the number of Hindus is so great, the town is surrounded on all sides by Muhammadan places of worship, which are held in much esteem. The proportion of brick-built houses is unusually large, and the principal landholders of the District reside here. But it is as a place of historical interest that Sherpur is most deserving of notice. It is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, 1595 A.D., as the site of a fort called Salímnagar, in honour of Salím, the son of Akbar, afterwards famous as the Emperor Jahángír. It also figures in the writings of other Muhammadan historians as an important frontier post, previous to the conquest of South-Eastern Bengal, and the establishment of the Government at Dacca. These writers always refer to the place as Sherpur Murchá, to distinguish it from another Sherpur in Maimansingh; and it is marked on Van den Broucke's Map (1660) as 'Ceerpoor Mirts.' Rájá Mán Singh, Akbar's Hindu general, is said to have built a palace at Sherpur; and it is very probable that he would make use of so convenient a centre, from which to dominate Southern Bengal, and particularly Jessor, which then included a large part of the present District of Pabná, and was held by the rebel *zamíndár*, Rájá Pratápáditya, against whom Mán Singh specially directed his arms.

Sherpur.—Town and municipality in Maimansingh District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 0′ 58″ N., long. 90° 3′ 6″ E.; lies between the rivers Shirí and Mirghí, about half a mile from the former and 1 mile from the latter, 9 miles north of Jamalpur. Population (1881) 8710, including the

suburbs of Náráyanpur and Barukpárá. Muhammadans number 4467; Hindus, 4161; and 'others,' 82. Municipal income (1883–84), £456, of which £383 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 10½d. per head. There is no water carriage to the town, and even water for drinking and household purposes is obtained solely from tanks. Sherpur contains a fine Hindu temple; its buildings in general are in bad repair, and the place has a decayed and neglected appearance. Police station, post-office, *munsif's* court, and a good school. Considerable river trade. In 1876–77, the registered exports comprised 27,100 *maunds* of jute (mostly sent to Náráyanganj), 35,100 *maunds* of rice and paddy, and 30,600 *maunds* of mustard seed; the imports included European piece-goods, valued at £5770, and 1200 *maunds* of betel-nuts. Owing to an alteration in the system of trade registration, no later statistics are available. A weekly newspaper, the *Charu Bartta*, is published at Sherpur, the proprietor being one of the leading Hindu *zamíndárs.*

Sherpur.—Sub-division and town of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SHIRPUR.

Sher Sháh.—Large village in Múltán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 6′ 45″ N., and long. 71° 20′ E., upon the Chenáb river. Until the opening of the Indus Valley State Railway in 1879, Sher Sháh was the terminus of the line from Múltán, and the port of the steam flotilla that plied to Karáchi (Kurrachee).

Shervaráyar Malai.—Hills in Salem District, Madras Presidency. —*See* SHEVAROY.

Shetrunja (*Satrunjaya*).—Place of Jain pilgrimage in Pálitána, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency.—*See* PALITANA TOWN.

Shevaroy.—Hill range in Salem District, Madras; situated between 11° 43′ and 11° 55′ N. lat., and between 78° 13′ and 78° 24′ 30″ E. long. The hills occupy a total area of 151·67 square miles, with a plateau of about 20 square miles; a high plateau (Yercaud) on the southern portion of the eastern block of about 10 square miles; and plateaux (Púliyúr and Nagalúr) on the east and west sides of the Green Hills. The last-named form the western portion of the Shevaroys, and are separated from the eastern portion by the valley of the Vanniar. Average elevation, 4500 feet; highest point in the Green Hills, 5410 feet above the sea. The total population of the hills was returned in 1881 at 10,513.

Three regular *gháts* or passes lead to the table-lands—(1) the Salem *ghát*, on the south, which commences at the fifth milestone from Salem, about 5½ miles long, is the favourite *ghát* pass, as coolies are more easily obtained; it is in some parts very steep: (2) the Ahtúr *ghát* commences at the Shevaroy Hills station on the Madras Railway south-west line; the distance by it to Yercaud is about 11 miles: (3) the

Mallápuram *ghát* on the north; distance from Mallápuram station on the Madras Railway south-west line to Yercaud, about 19 miles. This *ghát* is of easy gradient for the first 9 miles, but very steep in its ascent to the Nagalúr plateau. Besides these well-known *gháts*, the hills are accessible by footpaths from many other points.

The native inhabitants of the plateau and slopes consist of Vellálars or Malayális. (*See* SALEM DISTRICT.) Their former mode of cultivation was *kumári* or nomadic tillage, which consists in clearing and burning a piece of forest or jungle, after which the soil is turned up with a hoe and sown; the next year this land is abandoned for a fresh spot. This system, however, has been put a stop to by the Forest Department, as it was extremely destructive. The number of Malayális inhabiting the hills is not known, but they are supposed to be increasing, looking to the amount of revenue received from them.

Monumental remains are common, and consist of cairns or cromlechs, much resembling those found on the Nílgiris. The present inhabitants have no traditions relating to them.

The vegetation does not differ materially from that of other hill ranges of Southern India. The base of the Shevaroy mountains is covered with the common forms of vegetation found in the adjoining low country. The middle region is clothed with a zone of bamboo jungle, which ascends to a height of about 3000 feet, where it abruptly terminates. Teak, blackwood, and sandal-wood are also found, in favourable situations, up to this elevation. The teak, in a stunted form, is met with on the mountain plateau at an elevation of 4500 feet. The soil and climate seem to be peculiarly adapted for gardening operations. Among imported plants which thrive readily may be mentioned the pear, loquot, peach, apple, guava, strawberry, plantain, citron, orange, lime, lemon, and Brazil cherry. The Australian acacias, eucalyptus, and the casuarina grow; the silk oak (Grevillea robusta) flourishes. Cinchona has been introduced, and is thriving. The coffee-plant was naturalized in these hills about forty years ago by Mr. Cockburn, late of the Madras Civil Service; and in 1883 the total area taken up by planters was about 10,000 acres, of which, however, only about one-half was cultivated. The number of coffee plantations is nearly 300. The tea-plant grows luxuriantly, though it has not yet (1883) been cultivated with a view to the manufacture of tea. Oranges are common, especially the Seville and sweet varieties. The lemon, lime, and shaddock succeed equally well.

The most common animals are the leopard, bear, wild hog, jungle-sheep, mouse-deer, hyæna, jackal, jungle-cat, hare, etc. Tigers are sometimes met with. A few bison exist on the neighbouring hills, but of late years have not been seen on the Shevaroys. Among birds may be mentioned the jungle and spur fowl, partridge, quail, wild pigeon,

woodcock, and snipe. Cobras, vipers, scorpions, and centipedes are seldom found.

When the Shevaroys first began to attract notice forty years ago, the Government revenue derived from the whole of the hill villages was £35 yearly, which by 1883 had increased to upwards of £800. The great present want is a cart road from Salem, and the improvement of the interior roads. The revenue from coffee land is about £500, and from land under native cultivation, £300. A small detachment of police from Salem District is stationed on the hills. A Deputy *tahsíldár* resides at Yercaud, and the Salem *munsif* visits the place once every three months to decide suits. There are European residents at Yercaud, and visitors resort to the station for the hot weather and holidays; accommodation is scarce. Church, post-office, dispensary, reading-room, club, and hotel.

The principal localities on the Shevaroys are Yercaud, the Green Hills, Nagalúr, Púliyúr, Púttipádi, Maramangalam, and the Talasholay spur.

YERCAUD (Yerkádu) is the oldest and largest European settlement in the hills. It is situated on that portion of the plateau nearest to the town of Salem. The land in the valleys is undulating, and a great portion of it is already under coffee cultivation. The hill peaks are for the most part bare of soil, and the steep slopes are covered with low jungle.

The Green Hills are higher than any other portion of the range, and vary from 4500 to 5400 feet above sea-level. They differ much in appearance from any other portion of the Shevaroys. The tops of the hills are rounded, and covered only with grass and low stunted shrubs; the ravines are wooded, as on the Nílgiris (Neilgherries). The rounded and undulating appearance of this portion of the Shevaroys contrasts markedly with the rugged peaks and wooded slopes about Yercaud. This difference is due chiefly to the Green Hills being capped with laterite, in some places of considerable thickness. Several coffee plantations have been opened by Europeans and Eurasians upon the Green Hills; and there is a fine expanse of table-land, partly under cultivation by the hill tribes, which has been pointed out as a site well adapted for a sanitarium for European troops. This site occupies about 250 acres of land, and appears to be eminently suited for building.

The Shevaroy range possesses a very equable climate. Partaking as it does of both monsoons, the rainfall is considerable, being an annual average of from 65 to 70 inches, or double that of the rainfall on the surrounding plains. The moisture of the air is tolerably constant during the year. In a room without fire, and with open windows, the thermometer seldom stands below 65° F., and rarely

rises above 75° F. in the hottest months. A malarious type of fever occasionally prevails, but it is chiefly confined to the planters and others who live in, or visit, the jungles at the lower elevations. It is not improbable that some forms of disease, which are aggravated by the climate of the Nílgiris, may be treated with benefit on the Shevaroys, such as rheumatism, affections of the liver, bowel complaints, etc.

Shiár.—Mountain pass in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab, over a southward spur of the Himálayas, which bound Kunáwár to the south. Lat. 31° 19′ N., long. 77° 58′ E. (Thornton). Magnificent prospect from the summit, embracing the Chor Mountain and the peaks of Jamnotri. Elevation above sea-level, 13,720 feet.

Shibi (*Sibi*).—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State; 15 miles north of Túmkúr town. Population (1881) 177. Celebrated for a temple of Vishnu, after his name of Nara-sinha, erected by three brothers in the beginning of this century. It is a plain structure, surrounded by a high stone wall. The annual festival, held for 15 days from the full moon in the month of Mágh, is attended by 10,000 people, and supplies the occasion for a great deal of trade.

Shidhpur.—Town in Baroda State.—*See* SIDHPUR.

Shi-gun.—Village in the Ta-pun township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Station on the Irawadi State Railway. Population (1878) 1789; not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Shikárpur.—British District in Sind, Bombay, lying between 27 and 29° N. lat., and between 67° and 70° E. long. Bounded on the north by Balúchistán, the Upper Sind Frontier District, and the river Indus; on the east by the Native States of Baháwalpur and Jaisalmír (Jeysulmere); on the south by Khairpur State and the Sehwán Subdivision of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and on the west by the Khirthar Mountains. Area, 10,001 square miles. Population (1881) 852,986. The District comprises the 4 Sub-divisions of ROHRI, SUKKUR, LARKHANA, and MEHAR. The administrative head-quarters are at SHIKARPUR TOWN, which is also the most populous place in the District; but their transfer to Sukkur has been approved by Government, and will shortly take place.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Shikárpur District is that of a vast alluvial plain, broken only at Sukkur (Sakkar) and Rohri by low limestone hills, which tend to preserve a permanent bank for the Indus at those places. Towards the west, in the Mehar and Lárkhána Sub-divisions, rises the Khirthar range, with an extreme elevation of upwards of 7000 feet, forming a natural boundary between Shikárpur and Balúchistán. Large patches of salt land, known as *kalar*, occur frequently, especially in the upper part of the District; and towards the Jacobábád frontier, barren tracts of clay, and ridges of sandhills

covered with caper and thorn jungle, constitute a distinctive feature in the landscape. The desert portion of the Rohri Sub-division, known as the *Registhán*, possesses extensive sandhills, bold in outline and often fairly wooded. The forests of Shikárpur cover a total area of 207 square miles.

History.—The Districts of Upper Sind can hardly be said to have a history separate from that of the whole Province. Before the Muhammadan invasion, in 712 A.D., this portion of Sind was ruled by a Bráhman race, with their capital at Aror (or Alor), 5 miles distant from the modern town of Rohri. Shikárpur continued for some time a dependency of the Ummayid dynasty, and subsequently of the Abassides. In conjunction with the rest of Sind, it was conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, about 1025 A.D.; but his rule was of short duration, being replaced, about 1032, by the Súmra dynasty. The latter was succeeded in its turn by the Samma family, and this again by the Arghúns; for an account of all of which, see the article on SIND.

Upper Sind does not come into any prominence till the accession to power of the Kalhora dynasty, in the early part of the 18th century. Previous to this, the country, which had been annexed in 1591-92 to the Delhi Empire by Akbar, was ruled by a succession of governors; and a powerful tribe, the Dáúdputras, had arisen and displaced the Mahars, an influential clan, whose chief town was then at Lakhi, 9 miles south-east of Shikárpur town. These Mahars had themselves some time before driven out the Jatois, a race of Balúchís, in a manner thus described by Captain (now Major-General) Sir F. G. Goldsmid, in his historical memoir of Shikárpur, written in 1854:—

'There were seven brothers of the tribe (Mahars) in Ubauro, near the present Baháwalpur frontier, of whom one, by name Jaisar, not finding a residence with his near kindred to accord with his views of independence, turned his steps to Bukkur (Bakkar), then occupied by the noted Mahmúd, governor, under Sháh Beg Arghún, of the fort in 1541 A.D.

'The Jatois, a race of Balúchís, held the country on the west bank of the river between Búrdika and Lárkhána. This included the town of Lakhi, then a flourishing place, so called from Lakhu, as Gosarji was from Gosar, and Adamji from Adam Jatoi. Jaisar crossed the river and took up his abode among the villages of this people. The Mahars and their new comrades disagreed; but the former had a friend at court, one Músa Khán Mehr, who was a man of influence with Mahmúd, and obtained the assistance of some hundred men to quell the disturbance, by asserting the rights of his own side. The consequence was the subjection of the Jatois, and a partition of their country. Jaisar received the tract extending from Mehláni to Lárkhána as a free gift (*tindad* and *madad-mash*), on the condition that, after the lapse of a generation, one-tenth of the produce would be claimed by the

Government. The Jatois obtained the northern allotment, from Mehláni to Búrdika, on payment, however, of the customary land-tax. Jaisar Khán remained at Lakhi, which thus became, as it were, his property; and at his death, his son Akil, in conjunction with a brother, Bakkar, and a cousin, Wadera Sujan Khán, determined on building a new town to replace the old one. The fort which they erected may still be traced. Sujan also built a village called Marúlo, after his son Marú, now known as Wazirábád, from Sháh Wali, the Wazír of Ahmad Sháh Duráni, whose perquisite it in after years became.'

But the Mahars had to contend with the Dáúdputras, who were by profession both warriors and weavers. The results of the contest, and consequent foundation of the city of Shikárpur, are thus narrated by General Sir F. G. Goldsmid:—'The weavers (Dáúdputras) appealed to spiritual authority, as represented in the person of Pír Sultán Ibráhim Sháh, whose tomb still bears testimony to the fact of his existence. He was a holy man of eminence, and numbered the Mahars, as well as their opponents, among his disciples, and he moreover himself resided at Lakhi. He took up the cause of the appellants, and eventually obtained permission for them to resume their hunting in the Shikárgahs, from which they had been warned off by the Mahars. Again, however, they were stopped, and again did they seek the Pír for redress. The Mahars were summoned a second time, and ordered to desist. They remonstrated, and finally informed their venerable mentor that they would never spare the intruders till they had exterminated the whole body, or at least driven them from the vicinity of the Shikárgah, adding, "If you wish to be their comrade, good, be it so."

'Baffled and distressed, the Pír bethought him of the final resource in such cases. He invoked curses on the rebelling Mahars, and blessings upon the oppressed Dáúdputras. He told his *protégés* that they were as the iron sickle, and their enemies as grass or chaff, and promised them the victory in the event of an engagement. The plot prospered. The crisis drew on, and the battle became inevitable. According to the story of the sons of Dáúd, their ancestors on this occasion could only muster a force of 300 or 400 fighting men, while their opponents numbered 12,000. A sanguinary conflict ensued on the meeting of the hostile forces, which, after the most determined endeavours on either side, eventually terminated in favour of the Dáúdputras, who were left masters of the field. Strange to say, while some 3000 dead bodies of Mahars strewed the ground, but few were killed on the side of the victors. A vigorous pursuit succeeded this victory. It was known that the wealthy *zamíndárs* of Lakhi had *lákhs* of rupees concealed in that city. Thither went the Dáúdputras; and it is by no means unlikely that, on this particular occasion, they found

means of improving the condition of their financial and commissariat departments.

'The Pír received his successful pupils with as much mundane satisfaction as could be expressed by so holy a man. He congratulated them, and, mounting his palfrey,' continues General Goldsmid, 'he led the weavers to the scene of their exploits. He halted at the ground on which now stands the commercial capital of Upper Sind. Muttering some mysterious words, which immediately instilled a dramatic awe into the hearts of the bystanders, he raised his hand high in the air, and gracefully dropped an iron nail, which had long been held there unnoticed. The nature of the movement brought the point well into the earth. It remained transfixed in an admirable position for the chief performer of the play. He pointed to the instrument upon which all eyes were drawn. "Here," said the Pír, "let a city be built, and let it bear the distinguished name of Shikárpur!" The air rang with shouts, and the proceedings terminated in the usual manner on such occasions. The jungle was cut and cleared; neighbours were summoned, threatened, and cajoled; the work proceeded with vigour and rapidity, and by degrees a town appeared. The town in due course became a city, noted for the wealth and enterprise of its merchants, the size and business of its *bázár*, a hot-bed of intrigue, debauchery, bribery, oppression, evil-speaking, and many other kinds of corruption; and so passed away the years till the dawn of the 18th century.'

The Kalhoras had, during the 17th century, been gradually laying the foundation of their subsequent sovereignty in Sind, and the career of Yár Muhammad, the first ruler of this line, is thus described by Goldsmid :—'Mírza Bakhtawar Khán, son of Mírza Panni, was ruler of Siwi, and held a large tract on the west bank of the Indus, in the environs of Shikárpur. Yár Muhammad, associated with Rájá Likki and Iltas Khán Brahui, recommenced aggressive measures by a movement in the country bordering on the Manchhar Lake. He possessed himself of Samtáni, expelling the Panhwars and their head-man, Kaisar; and despatched his brother, Mír Muhammad, to extend his acquisitions by a diversion in an opposite quarter. His objects were achieved with skill and rapidity. His career of conquest made Iltas leave him. "You have no need of me; heaven is on your side; that suffices," said the rough Brahui. Kandiáro and Lárkhána were taken, among less important places. The latter had been held by Málik Alá Bakhsh, brother of Bakhtawar. The Mírza, upon these reverses, appealed to the Sháhzáda in Múltán, Moiz-ud-dín (afterwards Jahándar Sháh), who no sooner heard the report than he turned to the scene of disturbance. Then Bakhtawar's heart misgave him, for he did not wish to see the country entrusted to his charge overrun by the troops of his master. He had probably private and particular reasons for the objection

unknown to the historian. He prayed the prince to withhold his march, and on the refusal of his request, had actually the audacity to oppose the advancing hosts. He was slain, and Moiz-ud-dín repaired to Bukkur. Yár Muhammad does not appear to have suffered severely for his offences; on the contrary, the Sháhzáda came gradually round to favour his views of aggrandizement. One after another, new governors were appointed for Siwi, which Province in course of time was handed over to the Wakíls of the Kalhoras. Yár Muhammad received the imperial title of Khúda Yár Khán.'

The reigns of the several Kalhora princes will be found described in some detail in the section treating of the history of the Province. During the Talpur rule, various parts of Upper Sind, such as Búrdika, Rúpar, the town of Sukkur, and other places, which were dependencies of the Duráni kingdom, had, between the years 1809 and 1824, been gradually annexed to the possessions of the Khairpur Mírs, Sohráb, Rústam, and Mubárak. Shikárpur was the only spot that remained to Afghánistán; and that town eventually came into the peaceable possession of the Mírs in 1824, at a time when Abdúl Mansúr Khán was governor of the place, and when the Sikhs were said to be contemplating an attack upon it. Goldsmid thus refers to this circumstance in his memoir:—'Three or four months after the departure of Rahím Dil Khán, it began to be rumoured that the Sikhs were contemplating an attack upon Shikárpur. At this time the Chevalier Ventura was with a force at Derá Ghází Khán. The Mírs of Sind—Karam and Murád Alí of Haidarábád, and Sohráb, Rústam, and Mubárak of Khairpur—seeing that it would be of great advantage that they should at this juncture take the city into their own hands, deputed the Nawáb Wali Muhammad Khán Lughári to dispossess the Afgháns, and carry out the wishes of his masters. The Nawáb commenced by writing to Abdúl Mansúr several letters to the following effect:—

'"Undoubtedly the Sikhs did wish to take Shikárpur, and were approaching for that particular purpose. Its proximity to the Mírs' possessions in Sind made it very inconvenient for them that it should fall into the hands of this people; moreover, the capture of the place, under the circumstances, would be disgraceful, or at least discreditable, and it was the part of wise men to apply a remedy in time when available. The Afgháns were not in a position to oppose the coming enemy; their Sardárs in Khorasán were in the habit of eating superior mutton, Pesháwar rice, luscious grapes, raisins, delicious cold melons, seedless pomegranates, and rich comfits, and of drinking iced water; it was on account of this application of cold to the body that a martial and lordly spirit possessed them, which it is not the property of heat to impart. It was, moreover, necessary to the well-

being of their hardy constitution. While the army was coming from Khorasán, the city would glide from their hands." A well-known Persian proverb was here judiciously interpolated, viz., On calling the closed fist to remembrance after the battle, it will be necessary to let the blow fall upon one's own head. "In fine, taking all things into consideration, how much better would it be for the Mírs to occupy Shikárpur; they were Muhammadans as well as the Afgháns. Once having driven away the Sikhs, and deprived the infidels of their dominions, Shikárpur was at no distance; let it then become the property of the Sardárs. Now, in the way of kindness, let them (the Afgháns) return to Khorasán, and join their comrades at table in discussing the *pilaus* and fruits, whereby cure is obtainable of this most destructive heat."

'Abdúl Mansúr Khán, upon receiving these communications, became greatly perplexed, and thought of returning to Khorasán. The Mírs, much as they desired to take possession of the town, were obliged to content themselves with assembling an army without its walls, on the plea of protection against a Sikh invasion. They encamped in the Sháhi Bágh. The Nawáb sent for Júma Khán Barakzai, and through him opened fresh communications with the governor, and tried every artifice to persuade the latter to quit his post. Finding a bold stroke of diplomacy necessary, he urged that he would hold him responsible for the town revenues accruing after the date of the original proposition for transfer to the Mírs. This argument had the desired effect; Abdúl Mansúr refused to refund, but agreed to abandon Shikárpur. In this interval, Diláwar, Khitmatgár to the Nawáb, entered the city, and coming to the house of Shaukár Muya Rám, established his head-quarters there, and caused the change of Government to be notified throughout the *bázár* and streets. The Mírs' followers came gradually in, and at length were regularly installed, and obtained the keys of the eight gates.

'The next day, Abdúl Mansúr Khán, at Júma Khán's instigation, visited the Nawáb in the Sháhi Bágh. The latter, after much flattery and compliment, gave him his dismissal. The ex-governor repaired with his effects to Garhi Yásin, a town in the neighbourhood, and stayed there to execute some unfinished commissions. In a few days, the Nawáb ordered him to depart from thence, which he did, and was soon far on his way to Kandahár. Wali Muhammad felt relieved, and applauded his own handiwork, in that he had won a bloodless victory. He had deprived the Afgháns of a much-loved settlement, and added it to the possessions of the Mírs. The revenue was divided into seven shares; four became the property of the Mírs of Haidarábád, and three of their relatives of Khairpur. Kazim Sháh was the new governor.'

In 1833, during the Talpur rule, Sháh Shúja, the dethroned Afghán monarch, made an expedition into Upper Sind to recover his lost territory. He marched with a force *viâ* Baháwalpur towards Shikárpur. He was met near Khairpur by Kazim Sháh, the former governor of Shikárpur, and escorted to the city with all honour, where he was to stay forty days and receive 40,000 rupees (£4000). But though he took the money, he did not leave at the appointed time. Public feeling in Sind ran high. Those who declared for the Sháh on the west bank were taken under his especial protection. He appointed local officials, and commenced legislating for his Sindian *protégés*, treating them in the light of subjects. The climax was a burst of indignation from the offended Mírs, and a rising of their Balúch retainers. A Balúch army, under Mírs Mubárak and Zangí Khán, crossed the river at Rohri, and took up a position at Sukkur, while Sháh Shúja despatched a force of 2000 men under his lieutenant, Samandhar Khán, to meet it. The Mírs had been drawn up near the Lálá wáh Canal, which the Sháh's general attacked, throwing the Balúchís into instant confusion, and ultimately defeating them. This victory resulted in the payment to the Sháh by the Mírs of 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000), and 50,000 rupees (£5000) for his officers of State, while 500 camels were made over for the king's use. The Sháh subsequently marched on his expedition against Kandahár, but being defeated by Dost Muhammad, he retreated to Sind and proceeded to Haidarábád, where he obtained sufficient money from the Mírs to enable him to return to Ludhiána, in the Punjab.

In 1843, on the conquest of the Province by the British, all Northern Sind, with the exception of that portion held by the Khairpur Mír, Alí Murád Talpur, was formed into the Shikárpur Collectorate anc‸nal the Frontier District. In the previous year (1842), the towns of S Bukkur, and Rohri had by treaty been ceded to the Britis'ow the petuity. In 1851, Mír Alí Murád Talpur of Khairpur wasn Sítá to and public inquiry, convicted of acts of forgery and fraud, ines being retaining certain lands and territories which belonged of. to Rohrí British Government. The forgery consisted in his having‸ ‸tarting leaf of the Kurán in which the Naunáhar, concluded in 1842 be… himself and his brothers, Mírs Nasir and Mubárak Khán, was written, and having substituted for it another leaf, in which the word 'village' was altered to 'district,' by which he fraudulently obtained possession of several large districts instead of villages of the same name. On 1st January 1852, the Governor-General of India (Marquis Dalhousie) issued a proclamation depriving the Mír of the districts wrongfully retained, and degrading him from the rank of *Rais* (or Lord Paramount). Of the districts so confiscated, Ubauro, Búldika, Mírpur, Saidábád, and other parts of Upper Sind on the left bank of the Indus,

now forming the greater part of the Rohri Sub-division, were added to the Shikárpur Collectorate.

Population.—The population of Shikárpur District, according to the Census of 1872, numbered 776,227; and according to that of 1881, 852,986, scattered over an area of 10,001 square miles, inhabiting 6 towns and 1367 villages, and dwelling in 137,702 houses. Total increase of population in the nine years, 76,759, or 9·88 per cent. The Census of 1881 gives the following results:—Persons per square mile, 85·2; villages per square mile, 0·13; persons per village, 621; and persons per house, 6·1. Classified according to sex—males number 461,033, and females 391,953; proportion of males, 54·05 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, boys 189,272, and girls 153,962; total children, 343,234, or 40 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 271,761, and females 237,990; total adults, 509,751, or 60 per cent. of the population.

As regards religious distinctions, Shikárpur is an essentially Muhammadan District, the Census showing a total of 684,275 Muhammadans, as against 93,341 Hindus. The Muhammadans include 679,132 Sunnís, 5142 Shiás, and 1 Wahábí. Divided into tribes, there were 132,301 Balúchís, 6539 Patháns, 13,158 Sayyids, 17,313 Shaikhs, 492,733 Sindhís, 22,231 'other' Muhammadans. The Hindus include 3336 Bráhmans, 271 Rájputs, 77,491 Lohánas, and 12,243 'other' Hindus; 5892 are returned as aboriginal tribes; while 736 Christians, 64 Pársís, 9 Jews, 68,655 Sikhs, 6 Buddhists, and 8 Brahmos complete the total.

As regards occupation, the male population is divided by the Census into the following main groups:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 7124; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, [illegible] (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., [illegible] (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 165,440; (5) [illegible]al class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 55,174; (6) [illegible]d non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male [illegible] persons of unspecified occupation, 219,124.

[illegible] 373 towns and villages in the District, 468 contain less than [illegible]d inhabitants; 431 between two and five hundred; 251 [illegible]ndred and one thousand; 161 between one and two [illegible] and three thousand [illegible]2 between three and [illegible] 3 between two and [illegible] [illegible] between five and ten thousand; 2 between ten and [illegible]; 3 between five and ten thousand[illegible]; 3 between twenty and fifty thousand. The chief [illegible]nd; and 2 between twenty and fifty thousand[illegible] Shikarpur, population (1881) 42,496; Sukkur, 27,389; Rohri, 10,224; Kambar, 6133; and Garhi [illegible] 53,188; Rohri, 10,224; [illegible]. The above-named six towns, together with Ghotki, [illegible]ato-Dero, 3170; Ubauro, 2267; Mehar, 1944; [illegible]heshah, are municipalities: total income (1883-84),

£28,488; incidence of taxation varied from 8½d. to 5s. 2½d. per head in different towns.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 465,522 persons, or 54·58 per cent. of the population; only 181,679 were agricultural workers. In 1883–84, in the Government villages of the District, 660,016 acres were cultivated land bearing assessment and in occupation; 336,354 acres were fallow; while 242,739 acres, though cultivable and assessed, were not in occupation. The area under actual cultivation was 579,527 acres, of which 113,715 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 512,570 acres, of which nearly half, or 234,617 acres, were under rice; pulses, 110,912 acres; orchards, 4235 acres; drugs and narcotics, 3460 acres, chiefly tobacco; sugar-cane, 726 acres; oil-seeds, 44,883 acres; indigo, 2780 acres; fibres, 7985 acres, nearly all under cotton; and 'other' products, 5691 acres. The prices of agricultural produce, per *maund* of 80 lbs., ruling during 1883–84, were as follows—wheat, 5s. 7d.; barley, 3s.; best rice, 6s. 10¼d.; common rice, 5s. 1d.; *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 3s. 3¼d.; *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), 3s. 1¾d.; gram, 3s. 10d.; salt, 5s. 10d.; flour, 6s. 6¼d.; *dál* (split-peas), 6s. 4¾d.; *ghí*, £2, 9s. 0¼d. The wages of skilled labour were in the same period 2s. per day; of unskilled labour, 7½d. Cart hire, 2s. a day; camel hire, 5d. a day for baggage camels, and 1s. 0¾d. a day for riding camels.

Natural Calamities.—In 1874, the Indus inundated a large portion of the District, breaching the railway and other embankments. The flood waters reached their greatest height from the 14th to 16th August, but began steadily to subside about the 27th of that month. No less than 536 villages were flooded, and several Government buildings were washed away. The floods of 1874 were from 5 to 8 feet higher than those which occurred in 1872. The net loss to Government in Mehar Sub-division alone was estimated at £15,000.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi (now the North-Western State) Railway runs through the District, from Sítá to Reti, for about 170 miles, with 22 stations, the principal ones being Radhan, Ruk junction, Sukkur, where it crosses the Indus to Rohrí on the opposite bank, and Reti. The Sind-Pishin Railway, starting from Ruk junction, crosses the District boundary a little beyond Jacobábád, a distance of about 40 miles, with 4 stations. But the facilities for trade afforded by the railway have not materially affected the boat traffic on the Indus. The trade through the BOLAN PASS passes through the District, and the value is estimated at from £250,000 to £300,000, large quantities of wheat being sent to Karáchi. The principal manufactures are carpets and coarse cotton cloth.

Administration.—The total revenue of Shikárpur District in 1882–83 amounted to £234,792. The land revenue collected was £189,868; stamps, £12,550; excise, £12,120; and licence-tax, £3800. The

local fund revenue was £13,920, while the 11 municipalities raised an income of £23,050. Shikárpur is administered by a Collector-Magistrate with assistants; the Civil and Sessions Judge has his head-quarters at Shikárpur town. In 1882–83, there were 6 civil judges and 39 stipendiary magistrates in the District; maximum distance of a village from nearest court, 40 miles; average distance, 6 miles. The police force numbered in 1882–83, 1091 officers and men, showing 1 policeman to every 7·5 square miles of area and to every 732 of the population. The police were maintained at a cost of £20,097. Schools (1882–83), 116, with 8104 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Shikárpur District is hot and dry, with a remarkable absence of air-currents during the inundation season; and it is, in consequence, very trying to a European constitution. The hot weather commences in April, and ends in October; it is generally ushered in by violent dust-storms; the cold season begins in November, and lasts till March. The maximum, minimum, and mean temperatures in the shade are on an average 100°, 61°, 81° F. The average yearly rainfall, from the observations of 18 years ending 1881, is only 4·93 inches. The diseases are principally malarious fevers and ulcers. Cholera occurs at times, chiefly in the months of June and July. In 1883–84, 15,865 births were registered, and 13,450 deaths, or 15·77 per 1000. In the same year, 27,256 persons were vaccinated. [For further information regarding Shikárpur District, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind*, by Mr. A. W. Hughes (London, George Bell & Co., 1876, second edition). Also Mr. Stack's *Memorandum upon the Current Land Revenue Settlements in the temporarily settled parts of British India*, pp. 532–543; the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Government.]

Shikárpur.—*Táluk* of the Sukkur (Sakkar) Sub-division, Shikárpur, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 487 square miles. Population (1872) 73,383; (1881) 75,112, namely, males 40,600, and females 34,512; occupying 11,187 houses, in 1 town and 66 villages. Hindus number 19,483; Muhammadans, 43,944; Sikhs, 10,816; non-Hindu aborigines, 766; Christians, 96; Pársís, 6; Jew, 1. Area assessed for land revenue (1882–83), 37,409 acres, of which 31,007 acres were under cultivation. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 5 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 367 men. Land revenue, £9824.

Shikárpur. — Chief town of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 57′ 14″ N., long. 68° 40′ 26″ E.; connected by good roads and railway with Jacobábád, from which it is distant 26 miles south-east, with Sukkur (Sakkar) 23 miles north-west, and Lárkhána 40 miles north-east. Situated in a tract of low-lying country, annually flooded by canals from the Indus, the nearest point of which

river is 18 miles west. The elevation of the town is only 194 feet above sea-level. Two branches of the Sind Canal—the Chhota Begári and the Ráiswah—flow on either side of the town, the former to the south, and the latter to the north. The soil in the immediate vicinity is very rich, and produces heavy crops of grain and fruit. Population (1881) 42,496, namely, males 22,889, and females 19,607. Hindus number 16,218; Muhammadans, 16,480; Christians, 70; Pársís, 4; and 'others,' 9724. Shikárpur is the head-quarters of the principal Government officials of the District, and contains the usual public buildings, and is a station on the Sind-Pishin State Railway. The total number of police is 311. Municipal revenue (1883-84), £6819; incidence of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head. The Municipal Act was brought into force in 1855, since which date great sanitary improvements have been effected. Before that time, Shikárpur was notorious for its unsightly appearance. The Stewartganj Market (so called after a popular District officer) is a continuation of the old *bázár*, and is a commodious structure. To the east of the town are three large tanks, known as Sarwar Khan's, the Gillespie, and the Hazári tank.

The trade of Shikárpur has long been famous, both under native and British rule. The town is situated on one of the great routes from Sind to Khorasán *viâ* the Bolán Pass, and its commerce in 1841 was thus described by Postans:—'Shikárpur receives from Karáchi, Márwár, Múltán (Mooltan), Baháwalpur, Khairpur, and Ludhiána—European piece-goods, raw silk, ivory, cochineal, spices of sorts, coarse cotton cloth, *kinkhabs*, manufactured silk, sugar-candy, cocoa-nuts, metals, *kirami* (groceries), drugs of sorts, indigo and other dyes, opium and saffron; from Kachhi, Khorasán, and the north-west —raw silk (Turkestán), various kinds of fruit, madder, turquoises, antimony, medical herbs, sulphur, alum, saffron, assafœtida, gums, cochineal, and horses. The exports from Shikárpur are confined to the transmission of goods to Khorasán through the Bolán Pass, and a tolerable trade with Kachhi (Bágh, Gandáva, Kotri, and Dadar). They consist of indigo (the most important), henna, metals of all kinds, country coarse and fine cloths, European piece-goods (chintzes, etc.), Múltáni coarse cloth, silks (manufactured), groceries and spices, raw cotton, coarse sugar, opium, hemp-seed, shields, embroidered horse-cloths, and dry grains. The revenue of Shikárpur derivable from trade amounted in 1840 to Rs. 54,736 (say £5473), and other taxes and revenue from lands belonging to the town, Rs. 16,645 (say £1664), making a total of Rs. 71,381 (say £7138), which is divided among the Khairpur and Haidarábád Talpur Mírs in the proportion of three-sevenths and four-sevenths respectively.'

Since Postans wrote as above, Shikárpur has lost much of its commercial importance owing to the opening of the Indus valley

portion of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed that in 1874 the imports of Shikárpur were valued at £264,190; the exports, £64,485. No later statistics are available. The principal manufactures are carpets and coarse cotton cloth. In the Government jail, *postins* or sheepskin coats, baskets, reed chairs covered with leather, carpets, tents, shoes, etc., are made by the prisoners. From Shikárpur there are three postal routes, viz. to Jacobábád, to Sukkur, and southwards to Lárkhána and Mehar. The town contains several vernacular schools, together with a high school.

Shikárpur. — Flourishing town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 17′ N., and long. 78° 3′ 15″ E., on the Rámghát road, 13 miles south-east of Bulandshahr town. Population (1881) 10,708, namely, males 5661, and females 5047. Hindus number 6203; Muhammadans, 4471; and Jains, 34. Several substantial houses, temples, and mosques. Great walled *sarái* (native inn), about 200 years old, through which the high-road passes. Founded about 1500 A.D. by Sikandar Lodí, as a hunting-lodge on a large scale, whence the town derives its name. An ancient mound, said to have been once known as Tálpat Nagari, is about 500 yards north of the town, with a remarkable building, called *Bára Khamba*, or the Twelve Columns, containing 12 fine red-sandstone pillars, in the architectural style of the Emperor Jahángír. The earliest inscription records the name of Sayyid Fazl-ullá, son-in-law of the Emperor Farukhsiyyár, with the date 1718. The town is surrounded by the ruins of an old fort. Residence of Chaudhri Lakshman Singh, an Honorary Magistrate, who was conspicuous for loyalty during the Mutiny in 1857. A small house-tax is raised for police and conservancy purposes.

Shikárpur.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, 418 square miles, of which 144 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 63,510, namely, males 32,609, and females 30,901. Hindus number 59,335; Muhammadans, 4161; and Christians, 14. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of local cesses, £16,193, or 4s. 10⅝d. per cultivated acre. Gross revenue, £18,679. Greatly overgrown with jungle, which gives shelter to many wild beasts. The most important crop and article of export is sugar-cane. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 51 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 236.

Shikárpur.—Municipal village in Shimoga District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 14° 15′ 40″ N., and long. 75° 23′ 30″ E., near the right bank of the Choradi river, 28 miles north-west of Shimoga town. Head-quarters of Shikárpur *táluk*. Population (1881) 3569; municipal revenue (1881–82), £144; rate of taxation, 9½d. per head. Said to have been originally called Maliyán-halli, and subsequently Mahádanpur.

The present name was given in the time of Haidar Alí, on account of the abundance of game found in the neighbourhood. The old fort is now in ruins. A festival held for three days in April is attended by 8000 persons. Weekly fair on Saturdays.

Shikohábád.—South-western *tahsíl* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. It is conterminous with Shikohábád *parganá*, and consists of an almost level plain, intersected by undulating sandhills, and much cut up by ravines along its southern border, where it abuts upon the river Jumna (Jamuná). The Sarsa river flows through the midst of the *tahsíl*, and the East Indian Railway traverses it from end to end, with stations at Bhadan and Shikohábád. It is also thoroughly opened by good roads in every direction. Canal irrigation is afforded by the Bhognipur branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 293 square miles, or 187,588 acres, of which 200¼ square miles, or 128,172 acres, were returned as under cultivation at the time of the last land revenue settlement of the District in 1870; 8845 acres were cultivable, including 2629 acres under groves; 1288 acres were held free of revenue; and 49,283 acres were uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 144,882, namely, males 79,316, and females 65,566. Average density, 494·5 persons per square mile. Hindus number 132,434; Muhammadans, 11,374; Jains, 1065; and 'others,' 9. Of the 284 towns and villages, 194 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 63 between five hundred and a thousand; 26 between one and five thousand; and 1 between ten and fifteen thousand inhabitants. The principal crops are *bájra*, *joár*, cotton, and sugar-cane for the *kharíf*, and wheat, *bejhar*, barley, and gram for the *rabí* harvest. The former occupies about 60 and the latter 40 per cent. of the cultivated area. Land revenue (1882), £27,625, or including local rates and cesses, £30,958. In 1884, Shikohábád *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 42 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 370.

Shikohábád.—Town in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Shikohábád *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 27° 6′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 38′ 10″ E., on the Agra road, nearly 2 miles from Shikohábád station on the East Indian Railway, and 34 miles west of Máinpuri town. Population (1881) 11,826, namely, males 6347, and females 5479. Hindus number 6741; Muhammadans, 4957; Jains, 122; and Christians, 6. The old town, a large straggling collection of houses, lies east and south of the main road; but the principal *bázár* lines the highway itself, and contains 9 *saráis* (native inns) for the accommodation of travellers. An ancient mound, once the site of the fort, is now covered by houses. The town contains numerous temples and mosques, and is the birthplace of several Hindu and Musalmán saints. Handsome *tahsíli*, police station, post-office, school; telegraph office at

railway station. Named after Prince Dára Shikoh, traces of whose residence, garden, and wells still remain. The British obtained possession of Shikohábád in 1801, and established a cantonment south of the town. In 1802, a Maráthá force under Fleury surprised the British detachment; after which the cantonment was removed to Máinpuri. Formerly a great emporium for raw cotton, but the trade has declined. Manufacture of sweetmeats and cotton cloth. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Shillong.—Chief town of the Khási and Jaintia Hills District, and administrative head-quarters of the Chief Commissioner of Assam; situated in lat. 25° 32′ 39″ N., and long. 91° 55′ 32″ E., on a table-land 4900 feet above sea-level, and 64 miles south by road from Gauhátí (Gowhatty). Shillong first became the civil station of the Khási and Jaintia Hills in 1864, in substitution for Cherra Poonjee. In 1874, on the constitution of the Chief Commissionership of Assam, it was chosen as the head-quarters of the new administration, on account of its salubrity and its convenient position between the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys.

The Chief Commissioner permanently resides at Shillong, and also the heads of all the departments of Government. A considerable native population is already settled, which increases from year to year. Population (1872) 1363; (1881) 3640. Municipal taxation (1883-84), £374, or an average of 3s. 6d. per head of the population (2137) within municipal limits. Large sums of money have been expended on the erection of public buildings. A printing press has been established, from which issue all the official documents and reports of the Province. A church has been built, at which a chaplain officiates alternately with Gauhátí. The nominal area of the station is 7 miles in length by 1½ mile broad. An excellent water-supply has been introduced through an aqueduct, which has its source in the neighbouring hill streams; the water is distributed by means of pipes to every house in the civil station, and by hydrants in the public *bázárs* and other convenient places. Sanitary measures are stringently enforced. The cart-road from Gauhátí, the old capital of Assam on the Brahmaputra, was opened for traffic in 1877. The entire distance of 64 miles is now accomplished by *tonga dák* in a single day; and the sanatorium is thus rendered easily accessible from the fever-stricken plains of the Brahmaputra valley. The gradients on this road are a model of engineering skill. In 1885, the cantonments at Shillong were occupied by the 42nd Regiment of Bengal Infantry, with 2 mountain guns. A large weekly market is held in the *bázár*. A model farm established in the neighbourhood in 1873 did not prove successful, either from a financial or an agricultural point of view, and has been abolished. (See *The Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. p. 229.)

The climate of Shillong is singularly mild and equable. A temperature higher than 80° F. is seldom recorded. Hoar-frost lies upon the ground almost every morning during the months of December, January, and February. Shallow water occasionally freezes over, but snow never falls. Fires are necessary from November to March or April, the fuel used being coal, obtained at great cost from the beds at Máo-beh-lyrkar. The price fluctuates much, depending on the cost of carriage; it has been known to reach as high as £3 per ton. The rainfall registered during the fifteen years ending in 1881 averaged 87·44 inches a year. The prevailing diseases are dysentery, bowel complaints, and disorders of the liver; but when once European residents have passed through a short period of acclimatizing indisposition, they generally enjoy excellent health.

Shillong.—Mountain range in the Khási and Jaintia Hills District, Assam, overlooking the station of the same name. The highest peak (lat. 25° 34′ 18″ N., long. 91° 55′ 43″ E.) attains a height of 6450 feet above the sea, being the most elevated point in the District. The crown of the ridge is covered with a sacred grove of large timber-trees. This peak is the site to which the name Shillong properly belongs; the neighbouring station is known to the natives as Lábán, from a village of that name which adjoins it.

Shimoga.—District forming the north-western portion of the Nagar Division of Mysore, lying between 13° 30′ and 14° 38′ N. lat., and between 74° 44′ and 76° 5′ E. long. Area, 3797 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1881, 499,728 souls. Bounded along the north and west by the Districts of Dhárwár and North Kánara, in the Bombay Presidency. The administrative head-quarters are at SHIMOGA TOWN, on the left bank of the Tunga river, just above its junction with the Bhadra.

Physical Aspects.—The District constitutes part of the principal watershed of Southern India. The river system is twofold—the rivers in the east, the Tunga, the Bhadra, and the Varada uniting to form the Tungabhadra, which ultimately falls into the Kistna, and so into the Bay of Bengal; while in the west, a few minor streams break through the barrier of the Western Gháts and reach the Kánara coast. The whole region is covered with hills and valleys, but it naturally divides into two distinct portions. The larger half, towards the west, known as the Malnád or hill country, gradually rises towards the Western Gháts, where isolated peaks attain a height of more than 4000 feet above sea-level. The general elevation of the District is about 2100 feet; and towards the east it opens out into the Maidán or plain country, which forms part of the general plateau of Mysore. The Malnád presents a wealth of picturesque scenery and wild life. A park of giant timber-trees, overgrown with brilliant creepers, extends continuously for miles,

only interrupted by glades of verdant grass; the towering mountains form a precipitous background; and wild animals of all kinds abound.

Near the north-western frontier of the District, the Sharavatí river bursts through the Western Gháts by the celebrated Falls of Gersoppa, which surpass any other waterfall in India, and, in the combined attributes of height, volume of water, and picturesque situation, have few rivals in the world. The river here is 250 yards wide, and throws itself over a chasm 960 feet in depth in four distinct falls, one of which has an unbroken descent of 830 feet.

The mineral products include iron-ore, and laterite for building. Magnetic stones, occasionally found on the summits of the Gháts, are highly prized. In the valleys of the Malnád, the soil is a loose, sandy loam, very suitable for rice; in the north-east appears the black cotton-soil. The wealth of timber in the Malnád remains as yet unproductive, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country. The more valuable trees include *pún* (Colophyllum tomentosum), wild jack, ebony, *som* (Prosopis spicigera), the large *devadáram* (Erythroxylon monogynum), gamboge, and a species of cedar. In the centre of the District are found teak, sandal-wood, the areca, cocoa-nut, and sago palms, bamboo, cardamoms, and the pepper vine. Farther to the east, large trees altogether disappear. An area of about 35 square miles has been reserved by the Forest Department, including a teak plantation; and trees in avenues are planted along the public roads. Among wild animals, bison are especially numerous in the *táluk* of Ságar, where wild elephants are also occasionally seen. Tigers, leopards, bears, wild hog, *sámbhar* and *chitál* deer, and jungle sheep are common in the wooded tracts.

History.—The present area of Shimoga District has supplied more than one important city to Southern India. The oldest memorials are three copper plates, purporting to be land-grants of Janamejáya, the monarch to whom the *Mahábhárata* was recited. Considerable doubt has been thrown upon the genuineness of these inscriptions; and the dates to which they have been referred belong to legend rather than to history. Janamejáya is assigned to 1300 B.C. One of the plates bears the date 89 of the Yudishthira era, which would be equivalent to 3012 B.C., according to Mr. Lewis Rice.

Local history commences with the Kadambas, whose capital was at Banavasi, on the north-western frontier of this District, and whose dominions extended over great part of Kánara and Mysore. Banavasi is identified as one of the spots visited by a Buddhist missionary in 245 B.C., and as mentioned by the Greek geographer Ptolemy in the 2nd century A.D. In the 6th century, the Kadambas were overthrown by the Chalukya kings, under whom they long continued to govern as feudatories; and at about the same time a petty Jain kingdom was established at Humcha. The Chalukyas were in their turn expelled by the

Kalachuryas, under whose protection the Lingáyat religion became predominant in Kánara.

Shimoga District subsequently was included within the dominions of the Hoysala Ballálas and the kings of Vijayanagar, who were successively suzerains over all Southern India. At the time of the decadence of the latter empire, many local chiefs or *pálegárs* succeeded in asserting their independence, among whom the Keladi and the Basvapatna families divided between them the area of this District. The Keladi family, who were Lingáyats, first established themselves at Ikkeri about 1560, and subsequently transferred their residence to Bednúr, better known by the honorific appellation of Nagar. At one time they attained great power; but they were finally conquered by Haidar Alí in 1763, when their territory was annexed to Mysore. The Basvapatna chiefs were a less influential family, whose capital was at Tarikere, in the adjoining District at Kádúr. They also fell before the organized empire of Haidar Alí in 1761.

After the death of Tipú, and the re-establishment of the old Hindu dynasty of Mysore in 1799, Shimoga District repeatedly became the scene of disturbances, caused by the mal-administration of the Deshasta Bráhmans, who had seized on the offices of government, and made themselves obnoxious to both the Lingáyats and the cultivators. These disturbances culminated in the rebellion of 1830, led by representatives of the old Keladi and Basvapatna families, which occasioned the direct assumption of the administration of the entire State by the British.

Population.—In 1838, a Report by Mr. Stokes estimated the population of the District to be 304,120 souls; and a *khána sumári* or house enumeration, in 1853–54, returned a total of 427,179. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 498,976, showing an increase of 64 per cent. in the interval of thirty-three years, and nearly 17 per cent. in the later period of eighteen years, if the earlier estimates can be trusted. The last Census of 1881 returned the population at 499,728, namely, males 259,296, females 240,432; density of population, 132 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·52; houses per square mile, 24·9; persons per house, 5·85. The District contained 1973 towns and villages, consisting of 85,365 occupied and 9185 unoccupied houses. Classified according to sex and age, there were—under 15 years of age, boys 94,781, and girls 93,123; total children, 187,904, or 37·6 per cent. of the District population. The adults numbered, males 164,515, and females 147,309; total, 311,824, or 62·4 per cent.

The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 470,678, or 94·2 per cent.; Muhammadans, 27,574, or 5·5 per cent.; and Christians, 1476. The Bráhmans number 25,584, of whom the great majority belong to the Smarta sect; those claiming the rank of Kshattriyas are

returned at 14,694, including 13,429 Maráthás and 1265 Rájputs; the Vaisyas are poorly represented by only 1106 persons, all Komatis. Of inferior castes, the most numerous are Wokligas (68,219), who are agricultural labourers; Idigas (58,252), whose caste occupation is that of toddy-drawers; and Vaddárs (13,467), of whom many are also cultivators. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this part of the country, number 51,504; agricultural castes, 26,861; Kunchigars (brass and coppersmiths), 11,186; Kurubás (shepherds), 21,792; Uppárs (salt-makers), 8815; Tiglárs (market gardeners), 236; Gollárs (cowherds), 3009; Bedárs (hunters), 21,010; Bestárs (fishermen), 13,331; Banajigárs (traders), 3282; Neyigás (weavers), 21,866; Kumbhárs (potters), 3604; Agasás (washermen), 11,864; Darjís (tailors), 888; Nápits (barbers), 2777; Ganigárs (oil-pressers), 825; Myadárs, 3046. Out-castes are returned at 61,472; wandering tribes, 10,726.

The Musalmáns, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Shimoga, are mostly all described as Deccani Musalmáns of the Sunní sect. Shiás number 388; Wahábís, 5; Daira or Mahadavi, 45; and 'others,' 604. Out of the total of 1476 Christians, 34 were Europeans and 51 Eurasians (chiefly residing on the coffee plantations), leaving 1391 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, 100 are Protestants and 1376 Roman Catholics.

With reference to occupation, the Census distributed the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional, civil, and military class, 8433; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 1535; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, and carriers, 6523; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 131,477; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 10,693; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 100,635.

The District contains 1973 populated towns and villages, with a few houses of the better class, or over £50 in value. Of the total number of towns and villages, 1099 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 626 from two to five hundred; 205 from five hundred to one thousand; 34 from one to two thousand; 7 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to five thousand; and 1 from ten to fifteen thousand. The only place in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants is SHIMOGA TOWN, the head-quarters of the District, on the Tunga river; population (1881) 12,040. Its prosperity dates from the introduction of British rule. There are many sites of ruined cities in the District, which have been already alluded to. The chief are—Nagar or Bednúr, Ikkeri, and Keladi, all associated with a family of Lingáyat *pálegárs;* Basvapatna, the early residence of the Tarikere chiefs; the Jain ruins of Humcha;

and Banavasi, with its Buddhist memorials. The most important modern towns, after Shimoga itself, are Chennagiri and Ságar. There are altogether ten municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal income, in 1881–82, of £2249.

Agriculture.—The staple food crop of the District is rice, which is especially cultivated in the terraced valleys of the Malnád or hill country. The names of 60 different varieties are enumerated. The crop is sown from April to July, and reaped from November to February. In some tracts, the cultivation of 'dry crops' predominates. Of these, *ragí* (Eleusine corocana) is preferred by the natives for their own food, while rice is largely exported. Next to rice, the most important crop is sugar-cane, which is largely grown in the *táluk* of Shikárpur. The canes are planted from January to June, and gathered after a full twelve months. The juice is for the most part converted into jaggery. The tract about Nagar produces the finest areca-nuts in Mysore. Miscellaneous crops include oil-seeds, a great variety of vegetables and fruits, pepper, and cardamoms. The coffee zone of the District is estimated to extend over 1000 square miles, but a considerable portion of this area is not of the most favourable character. There are altogether 250 plantations, of which 6 are owned by Europeans. In 1861, an unsuccessful attempt was made to improve the indigenous production of cotton, by the distribution of American seed.

The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Out of the total area of 3797 square miles, only 1110 were returned in 1880–81 as under cultivation, and 433 as cultivable. The area under rice is 209,217 acres, with an out-turn valued at more than £335,000; other food-grains, 303,908 acres; cotton, 921; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 16,942; coffee, 4846; sugar-cane, 7245; oil-seeds, 6000; fibres, 1600; tobacco, 500; vegetables, 762; pepper, 532 acres: total area under actual cultivation, 552,473 acres. Average rent per acre for rice land, 9s.; wheat land, 6s.; land producing inferior grains, 9d.; cotton, 3s.; oil-seeds, 3s. 3d.; fibres, 3s. 6d.; sugar-cane, 4s.; and tobacco, 5s. Average produce of rice land per acre, 671 lbs.; wheat, 40 lbs.; inferior food-grains, 671 lbs.; cotton, 29 lbs.; oil-seeds, 170 lbs.; fibres, 500 lbs.; sugar, 360 lbs.; tobacco, 240 lbs.; and coffee, 34 lbs. Current prices per *maund* of 80 lbs.—rice, 4s. 1½d.; wheat, 4s. 9d.; cotton, £1, 17s. 7¾d.; salt, 8s. 11½d.; gram, from 3s. 2½d. to 4s. 9½d.; *ragí*, 1s. 5½d.; *dál*, 5s. 10¾d.; tobacco, £3, 7s. 6d.; unrefined sugar, 8s.; *ghí*, the Indian substitute for butter, lard, etc., £2, 9s. 2½d. A plough bullock costs from £2 to £20; sheep, from 4s. to £1. Iron sells at 12s. per 80 lbs. Skilled labour costs 1s. 3d. to 2s.; unskilled labour from 6d. to 1s. The hire of a cart per day is 1s. 6d. to 2s.; of a donkey, 7½d. to 1s.; of a boat, 1s. to 2s.

Irrigation is carried on both from tanks and from channels artificially

drawn from the rivers by means of anicuts or weirs. The total number of tanks is 8313, including the great reservoir of Sulekere, in the *táluk* of Chennagiri, which is 40 miles in circumference, and ranks as the second largest in Southern India. In this same neighbourhood are to be found the best cattle in the District; and there are several grazing-grounds for the *amrita mahál*, or royal breed maintained by the State. Buffaloes are largely used for agricultural purposes, and pack-bullocks are bred to carry the through traffic across the Gháts. The returns of 1880–81 showed a total of 401,153 cows and bullocks, and 47,643 sheep and goats; horses, 316; ponies, 2091; donkeys, 2317; and pigs, 2678.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief industries in the District are the weaving of coarse cotton-cloth and rough country blankets or *kamblis*, and the making of iron implements, brass-ware, pottery, and jaggery from the sugar-cane. Oil is expressed from a great variety of vegetable products. At certain localities are special manufactures of striped carpets, chintz, coarse brown paper, stone jugs, and rope from various fibres. The carving of sandal-wood constitutes a speciality of the *gúdigárs* of Soráb, whose delicate and elaborate workmanship is considered superior to that of either Bombay or Canton. The chief articles turned out are caskets and cabinets, ornamented either with leaves and figures from the Hindu pantheon, or with a copy of any design that may be ordered. Carving of inferior merit is also produced in other villages. The manufacturing stock of the District is returned at 1205 looms, and 63 oil-mills.

The trade of Shimoga is conducted with both the east and west coasts, and also with Bangalore. The chief exports are rice and other food-grains, jaggery from the sugar-cane, areca-nuts, coffee, pepper, and iron articles. The imports received in exchange are European piece-goods, copper vessels, oils of various kinds, tobacco, betel-leaf, and gold and silver ornaments. There are four passes across the Western Gháts, of which the two most important leave the District near the Falls of Gersoppa and at the town of Agumbi. The local trade is mostly in the hands of the Lingáyats, whose centres of operation are at Ságar, Tirthahalli, and Nyampti. There are five weekly fairs, each attended by more than 1000 people; and several annual religious festivals, at which much buying and selling is done. There is no railway in the District. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed an aggregate length of State roads of 225 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3425; District roads, 171 miles, costing £971.

Administration.—In 1881–82, the total revenue of Shimoga District, excluding education and public works, amounted to £190,941. The chief items were, land revenue, £120,467; *sáyar* or customs, £27,870;

forests, £955. The District is now divided into 9 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 50 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1881–82, the total number of estates on the register was 96,557. The District in 1883 contained 3 civil and 6 criminal courts. During the year 1881, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 343·82; and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 81·85: total, 425·67, of whom 18·78 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 1173 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 18 officers and 458 men; and the municipal police, 1 officer and 34 men: total, 511 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £4912. These figures show 1 policeman to every 8 square miles of area or to every 978 of the population; the cost being £1, 5s. per square mile and 2d. per head of population.

The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1881 was 114, attended by 4462 pupils, being 1 school to every 33 square miles, and 9 pupils to every 1000 of the population. Of the schools, three were for girls, attended by 168 pupils. Besides these schools, there was a jail school attended by 148 scholars; and a college. The Census of 1881 returned 8674 boys and 327 girls as under instruction, together with 19,888 males and 274 females able to read and write. The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed, in addition to the aided and inspected schools, 80 indigenous schools, with 1009 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Shimoga District offers great varieties of climate. The Gháts on the western frontier are in some places only 8 miles distant from the sea; and here the south-west monsoon strikes with its full force, bringing a rainfall of more than 150 inches in the year. But the District stretches from the Gháts for about 100 miles towards the central table-land of Southern India; and the rainfall gradually diminishes, until it only amounts to about 25 inches at Chennagiri, most of which falls in October during the north-east monsoon. The sea-breeze from the west is distinctly felt as far as Shimoga town. During the two years 1873 and 1874, the maximum temperature registered was 92° F. in the month of April, and the minimum 75° F. in December. In 1881, the maximum in April was 99° F.; the minimum in January, 70° F. The average rainfall at Shimoga town, calculated over a period of forty-four years ending 1881, was 29·26 inches; but as much as 170 inches has been known to fall within the year at Nagar.

Malarious fever of a persistent type prevails in the Malnád or hill country; and the natives appear to be even more exposed to its attacks than Europeans, when once the latter have become acclimatized. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that, out of the total of 10,843 deaths reported in 1881–82, 6061 were assigned to fevers, 1083 to bowel complaints, 204 to small-pox, 21 to snake-

bite or wild beasts, and 21 to suicide, 6 to woundings, 54 to accidents, and 3407 to other causes. In 1874, the dispensary at Shimoga town was attended by 302 in-patients, and by 9963 out-patients. [For further information regarding Shimoga District, see the *Mysore and Coorg Gazetteer*, by Mr. Lewis Rice, vol. ii. pp. 339–400 (Bangalore, 1876); and also the *Census Report of Mysore* for 1881.]

Shimoga.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, 547 square miles, of which 203 are cultivated. Population (1881) 81,919, namely, males 40,876, and females 41,043. Hindus number 71,651; Muhammadans, 9327; and Christians, 941. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £11,614. The west and south is hilly and overgrown with jungle, which gives shelter to many wild beasts. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 83 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 311. Gross revenue, £18,154.

Shimoga (*Shiva-mukha*, 'face of Siva,' or *Shí-moge*, 'sweet-pot').—Chief town of Shimoga District, and head-quarters of Shimoga *táluk*, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 36′ 5″ E., on the right bank of the Tunga river, 171 miles by road north-west from Bangalore. Population (1881) 12,040, namely, males 5947, and females 6093. Hindus number 8152; Muhammadans, 3131; and Christians, 757. Municipal revenue (1880–81), £2886. The early history of the town is unknown. In 1791, a battle was fought in the neighbourhood, in which the Maráthás defeated a general of Tipú Sultán, and sacked the town. Its growth in wealth and prosperity dates from the time when it was made the head-quarters of the District. A weekly fair, held on Tuesdays, is attended by 1500 persons.

Shimshupa (or *Shimsha*).—River in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. —*See* SHAMSHA.

Shin-da-we. — A highly venerated pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. It is 77 feet high, and 301 feet in circumference at the base. The shrine is supposed to enclose a relic of Gautama, which, released by its possessor, the miraculously-born Thin-gan-Min, alighted at the spot where the pagoda now stands, and was received by the people in a golden basket.

Shingnapur.—Municipal town in Mán Sub-division, Sátára District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 51′ 20″ N., and long. 74° 42′ 6″ E., 46 miles east by north of Sátára town, and 13 north-east of Dahivadi, the Sub-divisional head-quarters. Population (1881) 1167. Shingnapur is a famous place of pilgrimage, situated in a nook of the Shikhar Shingnapur hills. The hill, crowned with a temple of Mahádeo, to which the village owes its celebrity, appears like the point of a very obtuse-angled cone. The great fair is held in March–April. The attendance sometimes reaches 50,000. Great pains are taken as to the

sanitary arrangements during the fair. Government provides a hospital assistant at the expense of the municipality. Care is taken to prevent the water from pollution. The transactions are valued at £5000. The Bhawáni Ghát road which connects this town with NATE-PUTE, a trade centre in Sholápur District, is under construction. Municipal income (1883–84), £614; incidence of taxation, 1s. 4¾d. per head of population.

Shin-maw.—Pagoda on Tavoy Point, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. Founded in 1204 A.D. by Nara-pad-di-si-thu, king of Burma, when he visited this part of his dominions. It is highly reverenced as containing a tooth of Gautama.

Shin-mut-ti.—The most famous pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma, 58 feet high and 308 feet in circumference at the base. It is said to have been built to enshrine an image which was miraculously floated from India to the spot where the sacred edifice now stands. A sacred stone and a banian tree are shown near the pagoda. An annual festival is held here.

Shirálí.—Port on the south-western coast of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency. Situated at the mouth of the Venktapur river, about 20 miles south of Honawár, and 4 miles north of Bhatkal. There was formerly a trade in salt which was manufactured here, but this has been abolished. Average annual value of trade for four years ending 1881–82—imports, £1095; exports, £1881. Custom-house and school.

Shiroda (or *Chiroda*).—Petty State in the Gohelwár *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 1 shareholder or tribute-payer. Area, 72 square miles. Population (1881) 241. Estimated revenue, £90; of which £12, 0s. 6d. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1, 4s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Shirol.—Town in Kolhápur State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 44′ 10″ N., long. 74° 38′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 6944. Hindus number 6251; Muhammadans, 384; and Jains, 309.

Shiron.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 6047. Delightfully situated on the Narbadá, with a noble flight of 100 stone steps from the houses to the water-side.

Shirpur.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 651 square miles. Population (1872) 34,642; (1881) 43,321, namely, males 22,356, and females 20,965; occupying 6765 houses, in 1 town and 98 villages. Hindus number 34,817; Muhammadans, 2859; and 'others,' 5645. A broken range of the Sátpurás, running from east to west, divides this Sub-division into two parts, each with distinct natural features. The northern part comprises a wild and hilly country sparsely peopled by Bhíls. The southern is an unbroken plain,

with no trees except near village sites. The population is dense near the banks of the Tápti, but becomes scanty as the hills are approached. Although the Sub-division has three rivers that run throughout the year—the Tápti, forming the southern boundary for 26 miles, and its tributaries the Anar and the Arunávatí, and numerous other streams from the Sátpurás—the supply of surface water is on the whole scanty. The prevailing black soil is a rich loam resting on a yellowish subsoil. In 1865-66, the year of settlement, 3500 holdings (*khátás*) were recorded, with an average area of 20·9 acres, and an average rental of £3, 1s. 10½d. In 1878-79, the area under actual cultivation was 87,635 acres. Cereals and millets occupied 58,193 acres; pulses, 3386 acres; oil-seeds, 9539 acres; fibres, 15,583 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 934 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thánά*), 1; regular police, 42 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 132. Land revenue, £14,327.

Shirpur Sub-division was in 1370 granted in *jágír* by Firoz Tughlak, the Emperor of Delhi, to Malik Rájá, founder of the Khándesh kingdom. In 1785 it became part of Holkár's possessions. In 1818 it was ceded to the British.

Shirpur.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Shirpur Sub-division. Situated 30 miles north of Dhulia, in lat. 21° 21′ N., and long. 74° 57′ E. Population (1881) 7613, namely, Hindus, 6116; Muhammadans, 1024; Jains, 247; and 'others,' 226. Shirpur suffered severely in the floods of 1875, when water stood in places six feet deep, destroying property to the value of £3200. Municipal income (1883-84), £373; incidence of taxation, 9¼d. per head of population. Sub-judge's court, post-office, school, dispensary, rest-house.

Shiurájpur.—*Tahsíl* in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, conterminous with Shiurájpur *parganá*, lying along the south-west bank of the Ganges, and traversed by several distributaries of the Ganges Canal. Of the total cultivated area, 23 per cent. is watered from these channels, and a good deal of *dúmat* soil in the south of the *tahsíl* has been improved by the substitution of canal for *jhíl* or marsh irrigation. Notwithstanding the abundance of canal water, wells are extensively used. Excepting in the tract along the cliff of the Ganges, where, owing to the elevation of the surface, water lies at a great depth, the sub-strata are so sandy and treacherous as to render well-digging a perilous venture; while the unevenness of the ground prevents the spread of canal irrigation in this direction. The East Indian Railway passes through the southern corner of the *tahsíl*, with a station at Bhánpur. Shiurájpur is connected with Cawnpur by the Grand Trunk Road, and the *tahsíl* is well provided with roads.

Area, 264 square miles, of which 132 square miles are cultivated.

The chief autumn crops consist of cotton, *joár*, and indigo, and the spring crops of wheat and *bájra*. Poppy, tobacco, and *pán* are largely grown. Population (1881) 150,728, namely, males 79,485, and females 71,243. Average density of population, 570·9 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Hindus number 144,621, and Muhammadans 6107. Of the 320 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 225 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 61 between five hundred and a thousand; and 34 between one and five thousand. Land revenue, £27,409; total Government revenue, including rates and cesses, £30,698. Rental paid by cultivators, £49,868. In 1885, Shiurájpur *tahsíl* contained 2 criminal courts, and 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 31 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 271.

Shiurájpur.—Town in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Shiurájpur *tahsíl;* situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 21 miles north-west of Cawnpur city. Population (1872), including the neighbouring villages of Rájpur and Barrájpur, 7883. Not returned separately in the Census of 1881. Besides the Sub-divisional courts and offices, the town contains a police station, post-office, and Government school. A fort, formerly the seat of a Chandela Rájá, was razed to the ground after the chief's rebellion in 1857–58.

Shiurájpur.—Small village and station on the East Indian Railway in Bara *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 477. Noted for its stone quarries. Rising market; post-office; police station.

Shiurájpur.—Village in Kaliánpur *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 10′ 20″ N., and long. 80° 38′ 30″ E., on the Ganges, 22 miles from Fatehpur town. Population (1881) 1425, chiefly Bráhmans. The village is the site of the largest fair in the District, which is held on the occasion of the *Purnamási* festival in October–November.

Shivagangá.—*Zamíndárí* and town in Madura District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SIVAGANGA.

Shivagangá.—Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore.—*See* SIVAGANGA.

Shivbara.—Petty Bhíl State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Shivgáon.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 670 square miles. Population (1881) 87,113, namely, males 44,093, and females 43,020; occupying 16,100 houses, in 1 town and 179 villages. Hindus number 79,208; Muhammadans, 5776; and 'others,' 2129. Shivgáon is the most easterly Sub-division of the District. With one or two exceptions, the streams which drain the tract all rise in the hills on the south and south-east, and flow northward into the Godávari. The villages are for the most part

well supplied with water, which throughout the low grounds is always to be found at a moderate depth. Near the Godávari, the soil is deep and stiff, but near the hills it is of a lighter composition, and more easily worked. Early and late crops are grown in about equal proportions. In 1881–82, the actual area under cultivation was 222,759 acres. Cereal and millets occupied 177,102 acres; pulses, 17,612 acres; fibres, 19,531 acres; oil-seeds, 7001 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1513 acres. About 3000 looms are worked in the Sub-division, of which about 2000 are in the town of Páthardi, and 200 in Tisgáon. The principal manufacture is of various kinds of cotton cloth, mostly coarse. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circle (*thání*), 1; regular police, 34 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 272. Land revenue, £19,914.

Shivgáon.—Town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency, and head-quarters of Shivgáon Sub-division; situated 40 miles north-east of Ahmadnagar city, in lat. 19° 21′ N., and long. 75° 18′ E. Population (1881) 2948. Shivgáon is a ruined town on a wide plain; joined with Paithan and Ahmadnagar by a good road. It is surrounded by a wall. Sub-divisional offices, post-office, dispensary, school, temples, and weekly market on Sundays.

Shivner.—Hill fort of the town of Junnar, in Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency; situated not far from Harischandragarh, and about 50 miles north of Poona city. The hill of Shivner rises over a thousand feet, and stretches about a mile across the plain. It is triangular in shape, narrowing from a southern base of about 800 yards to a point of rock in the north. Near the south, the lower slopes of its eastern face are crossed by a belt of rock 40 or 50 feet high. The south-west of the hill is broken, and from about half-way up is strengthened by outworks and bastioned walls. Shivner is interesting as having been the birthplace of Sivají the Great.

During the first and second, and probably the third century after Christ, the hill seems to have been a great Buddhist centre. About 50 cells and chapels remain. They are found on three sides of the hill, but most of them are cut in its eastern face. Shivner was granted in 1599 to Sivají's grandfather, Málojí Bhonsla; and here, in 1627, Sivají was born. It was often taken and retaken; and once, in 1670, the forces of Sivají himself were beaten back by its Mughal garrison. Besides its five gates and solid fortifications, it is celebrated for its deep springs. They rise in pillared tanks of great depth, supposed by Dr. Gibson to be coeval with the series of Buddhist caves which pierce the lower portion of the scarp. The fort commands the road leading to the Náneghát and Málsejghát, formerly the chief line of communication between this part of the Deccan and the coast. [For further information respecting Shivner fort and caves, see the *Gazetteer of the*

Bombay Presidency, vol. xviii. part iii. pp. 153-163, and pp. 184-201 (Bombay, 1885).]

Shiyali (*Siyali*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 159 square miles. Population (1881) 114,041, namely, 55,465 males and 58,576 females; occupying 19,647 houses, in 1 town and 190 villages. Hindus number 106,621; Muhammadans, 4614; and Christians, 2806. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 41 men. Land revenue, £27,883.

Shiyali (*Siyali*).—Town in Shiyali *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 14′ N., and long. 79° 48′ E. Head-quarters of the *táluk*. A station on the South Indian Railway.

Sholágarh.—Town in Munshiganj Sub-division, Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 33′ 45″ N., long. 90° 20′ E. Population (1881) 6079.

Sholangipuram.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* SHOLINGHAR.

Sholápur.—British District in the Deccan, Bombay Presidency, lying between 17° 13′ and 18° 35′ N. lat., and between 74° 39′ and 76° 11′ E. long. Area, 4521 square miles. Population in 1881, 582,487 souls. Except Bársi *táluk*, which is surrounded by the Nizám's territory, Sholápur District is bounded on the north by Ahmadnagar District, on the east by the Nizám's Dominions and Akalkot State, on the south by Bijápur District and the Jath and Patwardhán States, and on the west by Sátára, Poona, and Ahmadnagar Districts and the States of Phaltan and Atpádi. On the west, in some places, Patwardhán villages are included, and in others isolated Sholápur villages lie beyond the District limits. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of SHOLAPUR.

Physical Aspects.—Except north of Bársi, west of Mádha, south-west of Málsiras and Karmála, where there is a good deal of hilly ground, the District is generally flat or undulating. Most of the surface rolls in long low uplands separated by hollows, with an occasional level. The shallow-soiled uplands are suited for pasture, and the deep-soiled lowlands under careful tillage yield the richest crops. The uplands are gently rounded swellings of trap, overgrown with yellow stunted spear-grass. Sholápur District is very bare of vegetation, and presents everywhere a bleak, treeless appearance. The chief rivers are the Bhíma (Bheema) and its tributaries, the Mán, the Níra, and the Sína, all flowing towards the south-east. Besides these, there are several minor streams. Of the principal reservoirs, Ekrúk and Siddheswar are near Sholápur city, one is at Koregáon, and one at Pandharpur. Wells also to some extent supply water for gardening and drinking purposes. The rainfall being very uncertain, a scarcity of water is

annually felt during the hot weather. Stunted *bábuls* and mangoes, and a few *níms* (Azadirachta indica) and *pípals* (Ficus religiosa), are the only timber-trees found in the District. As these afford no cover, the District is without wild animals of the larger kinds, except the wild hog and wolf.

History.—Sholápur is one of the Districts which formed the early home of the Maráthás, and the birthplace of the dynasty. It is still a great centre of Maráthá population and mercantile activity. As full an account of the rise and progress of the Maráthá power as is consistent with the scope of this work will be found in the article on INDIA, vol. vi. pp. 317–324, and further local details are given in the notice of the adjacent District of SATARA. An excellent monograph has been written on Poona, Sátára, and Sholápur Districts by W. W. Loch, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service.

Sholápur, in the early centuries of the Christian era (B.C. 90–A.D. 300?), probably formed part of the territories of the Shatákarni or Andhrabhritya dynasty, whose capital was Paithan on the Godávari, about 150 miles north-west of Sholápur city. Probably also during the 900 years previous to the Muhammadan overthrow of the Deogiri Jádavs in the beginning of the 14th century, Sholápur, like the neighbouring Districts of Bijápur, Ahmadnagar, and Poona, was held by the Early Chalukyas from 550 to 760, by the Ráshtrakutas to 973, by the revived or Western Chalukyas to 1184, and by the Deogiri Jádavs till the Muhammadan conquest of the Deccan about 1300.

The first Muhammadan invasion of the Deccan took place in 1294, but the power of the Deogiri Jádavs was not crushed till 1318. From 1318, Mahárashtra began to be ruled by governors appointed from Delhi, and stationed at Deogiri, which name was changed in 1338 by Muhammad Tughlak to Daulatábád, the 'Abode of Wealth.' In 1346 there was widespread disorder, and Delhi officers plundered and wasted the country. These cruelties led to the revolt of the Deccan nobles under the leadership of an Afghán soldier named Hasan Gangu. The nobles were successful, and freed the Deccan from dependence on Northern India. Hasan founded a dynasty, which, in honour of his patron, a Bráhman, he called Bahmani; and which held sway over the Deccan for nearly 150 years. In 1489, Yusaf Adil Sháh, the Governor of Bijápur, assumed independence, and overran all the country north of Bijápur as far as the Bhíma. For nearly 200 years, Sholápur belonged either to the Bijápur or to the Ahmadnagar kings as the one or the other succeeded in retaining it. In 1668, by the treaty concluded at Agra between Aurangzeb and Alí Adíl Sháh of Bijápur, the fort of Sholápur and territory yielding £63,000 of annual revenue was ceded to the Mughals as the price of peace. The general

decay of the Mughal Empire from 1700 to 1750 opened the way for the Maráthá supremacy.

Sholápur formed part of the Peshwá's dominions, until the downfall of his dynasty in 1818, and the incorporation of his territories in the Bombay Presidency. It was at first included with the District of Poona, but was erected into a separate Collectorate in 1838. Since then its progress has been rapid. Roads have been constructed, and the country is now traversed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. From time to time its prosperity receives checks owing to drought, to which its situation and the treeless surface of the country expose it. It suffered especially in the famine of 1877, when it was the first District to manifest distress in the Bombay Presidency. Extensive relief works were at once opened, and every possible means were taken to avert the starvation of the people. Much has been done by the opening of canals and ponds, such as the Ekruk and Ashtí tanks, to secure a better water-supply, and to protect the husbandmen from the cruel vicissitudes of the seasons; but the situation and physical characteristics of Sholápur will always render it liable to the calamities arising from drought.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned a total population of 719,375 persons. The Census taken on February 17th, 1881, disclosed a total population of 582,487 in Sholápur, showing a decrease of 136,888, or 19·02 per cent., since 1872, due entirely to mortality or emigration as the results of the famine of 1876–78.

The following are the main details shown by the Census of 1881:—Area, 4521 square miles; towns, 6; villages, 706; occupied houses, 81,203; unoccupied houses, 16,679. Average density, 128·84 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·15; houses per square mile, 21·6; persons per village or town, 818; persons per house, 7·17. Males numbered 294,814, and females 287,673; proportion of males, 50·6 per cent. Classified according to sex and age, there were—under 15 years of age, boys 111,468, and girls 104,304; total children, 215,772, or 37·03 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 183,346, and females 183,369; total adults, 366,715, or 62·97 per cent.

Classified according to religion, Hindus number 530,121; Muhammadans, 43,967; Jains, 7514; Christians, 625; Pársís, 157; Jews, 94; Sikhs, 8; Buddhist, 1. The Hindus were sub-divided into—Bráhmans (priests and Government servants), 27,059; Rájputs, 2938; Chamárs, 11,381; Darjís (tailors), 6222; Dhángars, 57,704; Dhobís (washermen), 4085; Nápits (barbers), 5959; Kunbís (cultivators), 178,908; Kolís (cultivators), 7530; Koshtís, 10,658; Lingáyats (traders), 21,509; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 2938; Málís (gardeners), 23,898; Mangs (depressed caste), 19,233; Mhárs, 44,001; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 5087; Telís (oilmen), 6750; Beráds, 3404; Jangams, 3838; Kumbhárs

(potters), 3852; Sutárs (carpenters), 4824; and Banjárás (carriers), 3397. The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consisted of—Patháns, 4350; Sayyids, 3905; Shaikhs, 35,177; and 'others,' 535. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned—Sunnís, 43,358; Shiás, 391; Wahábís, 3; and unspecified, 215. Among the Christians, 343 were Roman Catholics, 147 Protestants, and 135 of other Christian creeds. Adopting another principle of classification—native Christians numbered 399; Eurasians, 68; and Europeans, 158.

With regard to occupation, the Census distributes the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including all State, civil and military, officials, 11,314; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 3607; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 5516; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 135,064; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 39,276; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 100,037.

Of the 712 towns and villages in Sholápur District, 111 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 243 from two to five hundred; 230 from five hundred to one thousand; 96 from one to two thousand; 16 from two to three thousand; 10 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; 2 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 over fifty thousand. The most important towns are SHOLAPUR (city, 59,890; cantonment, 1391), PANDHARPUR (16,910), BARSI (16,126), KARKAMB (6421), KARMALA (5071), and SANGOLA (4726). All these, except Kárkamb, are municipalities. Total municipal population (1881) 102,723; municipal income (1883–84), £25,839; the incidence of taxation per head of population varied from 4½d. (Pandharpur) to 5s. 2½d. (Sholápur).

Agriculture.—Agriculture supported (1881) 389,224 persons, or 66·82 per cent. of the population; 210,292 were agricultural workers.

The soil of Sholápur is of three kinds, *káli* or black, *baraíd* or coarse grey, and *tambdi* or reddish. Except in the Bársi Sub-division, where black soil is the rule, and coarse grey is rare, most of the District is either grey or red. The black soil is almost confined to the banks of rivers and large streams.

Of the total area of the District, 4521 square miles, 3413 square miles were cultivated in 1881, of which 188 square miles were revenue-free. Area assessed for revenue, 3800 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £111,965; average incidence of assessment, including local rates and cesses, 11½d. per cultivated acre.

The total area of Government land is 2,646,136 acres, namely,

2,400,243 acres, or 90·70 per cent., cultivable, of which 215,115 acres are alienated; 155,709 acres, or 5·88 per cent., uncultivable; 5449 acres, or 0·21 per cent., grass or *kuran;* 29,553 acres, or 1·12 per cent., forest; and 55,182 acres, or 2·09 per cent., village sites, roads, and river beds. In 1883–84, 1,763,340 acres were under actual cultivation, of which 22,282 were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 1,330,781 acres, of which 923,706 acres were under *joár* (Sorghum vulgare); pulses, 185,528 acres; orchards, 3640 acres; drugs and narcotics, 2323 acres; condiments and spices, 7728 acres; sugar-cane, 5151 acres; oil-seeds, 189,235 acres; dyes, 468 acres; and fibres (cotton), 60,768 acres.

In 1883–84, the agricultural stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 340,258; buffaloes, 72,499; horses, 11,158; donkeys, 4191; sheep and goats, 420,616; ploughs, 21,014; and carts, 11,901. Prices of produce, per *maund* of 80 lbs.—wheat, 5s. 5d.; rice, best, 7s. 5¾d.; rice, common, 6s. 10½d.; *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), 3s. 5¾d.; *joár*, 3s. 4d.; gram, 3s. 10¾d.; salt, 6s. 0½d.; flour, 6s. 7½d.; *dál*, split-peas, 4s. 3½d.; *ghí*, £3, 12s. 6¾d. The wages of skilled labour are from 6d. to 1s. 9d. per day; and of unskilled labour, 3d. to 1s.

On garden land manure is always used, and also on dry crop land when available. The usual mode of manuring a field is by turning into it a flock of sheep and goats, for whose services their owner is paid according to the length of their stay. Scarcity of manure is the main reason why so little land is watered, compared with the area commanded by the Ekruk lake and other water-works. An industrious farmer ploughs his land several times before he sows it, and weeds it several times while the crop is growing. An irregular rotation of crops is observed, and about a fifth or sixth part of the holding is often left unsown. As a rule, the poorer landholders neither weed nor manure their land. They run a light plough over it, sow the seed broadcast, and leave it to itself. They expect to get from it at best merely a bare food-supply for the year; and while the crop is ripening, they have to supplement their field profits by the wages of labour. Much of the best land is in the hands of money-lenders who have either bought it or taken it on mortgage. The tendency seems to be for the petty landholders to diminish, and the land to fall into the hands of men of capital who employ the old holders as their tenants or labourers. It may be accepted that only about 10 per cent. of the agricultural classes are free from debt, and that the remaining 90 per cent. are involved, advances from time to time under some shape being a necessity to them. The Relief Act, by protecting their property from attachment and sale for debt, has rendered this necessity less urgent. In 1882–83, including alienated lands, the total number of holdings was 49,656, with an average area of about 48 acres.

Irrigation. — The irrigation works in Sholápur District are the

Koregáon, Ashti, and Ekruk lakes. The first-named is an old work improved, and the two last are new works. Koregáon lake lies 13 miles north-east of Bársi, and is formed by throwing two earthen dams across two separate valleys. The smaller of the dams was breached in 1870. It is proposed to restore it. The lake will then have a capacity of 81 millions of cubic feet. The Ashti lake lies in the Mádha Subdivision, 12 miles north-east of the town of Pandharpur. The lake when full holds 1499 millions of cubic feet of water. The Ekruk lake, the largest artificial lake in the Bombay Presidency, lies 5 miles north-east of Sholápur. The lake is 60 feet deep when full, and holds 3350 millions of cubic feet of water.

Forests.—The dry, shallow soil of the uplands of Sholápur District is ill suited for trees. The present area reserved for forests is 242 square miles, or about 5·35 per cent. of the total area of the District. The forest area is much scattered. It may be roughly divided into two tracts of forest land, on the hills between Bársi and the Nizám's territories in the extreme north-east, and on the hills to the south of Málsiras and Sángola in the extreme south-west. Before December 1871, when forest conservancy was introduced, Sholápur was extremely bare of trees and brushwood. Almost the whole land was taken for tillage. In December 1871, two square miles of scattered grass land or *kuran* were transferred to the Forest Department. During the twelve years ending 1883, these two miles have spread to 242 square miles. In the whole of the Sholápur forest area, no timber-cutting rights are admitted to exist. The forest lands are of two classes—scrub forest and *bábul* (Acacia arabica) meadows. The scrub forest is found on the hills, and *bábul* meadows occur all over the District. Of the total area, 24,885 acres consist of scrub forest, and 129,955 acres of *bábul* meadows.

Forest receipts are comparatively small, amounting to only £829 in 1882–83. About one-fifth of the forest reserves are yearly leased for grazing. The remaining four-fifths are leased yearly for grass-cutting, and in these, tree plantations are formed. Besides for fuel, the timber of the *bábul* and the *nim* (Melia Azadirachta) are used in making beams, posts, doors, carts, ploughs, and other field tools. The bark of the *bábul* and of the *tarvad* (Cassia auriculata) is used for tanning, and the pods as well as the flowers of the *palás* (Butea frondosa) are used for dyeing. The bark of the *ápta* (Bauhinia racemosa) is made into ropes.

Natural Calamities. — The earliest recorded famine is the great Durgá Devi famine, which began about 1396 A.D., and is said to have lasted nearly twelve years. It arose from want of seasonable rain; and it is said to have spread over the whole country south of the Narbadá, and to have depopulated whole Districts. Next came the famine of 1460

A.D. About 1520, a great famine is said to have been caused by military hordes destroying and plundering the crops. The famine of 1791 was very severe, especially in the Karnátik, where the crops entirely failed. In the Deccan the yield was one-fourth to one-half the usual out-turn; but as thousands flocked from the Karnátik to the Deccan for food, the distress became very severe. During this famine, grain sold at 3 lbs. the shilling. In 1802, the plunder and destruction of crops by Holkar and the Pindárís caused a serious scarcity, which the failure of the rain in October and November 1803 turned into a famine of ruinous severity. In 1818, partly owing to the ravages made by the Peshwá's armies, and partly owing to the failure of crops, the District again suffered from famine, accompanied by cholera, which destroyed thousands of lives. Other famines or scarcities occurred in 1824, 1832-33, 1845, 1854, and 1862, owing to scanty rainfall.

In 1876, the scanty rainfall of 9·11 inches led to failure of the crops; and distress, amounting to famine, resulted over the whole District. In September and October, except one or two local showers, there was no rain; and no cold-weather crops were sown. Early in August the poorer classes began to show signs of distress; and, on the 4th September, Government sanctioned the opening of relief works. A favourable rainfall, at the opening of the rainy season of 1877, was followed by another long drought, which caused great suffering. Distress and anxiety continued till September and October, when a plentiful and timely rainfall brought down prices and gave much relief. At the close of November the demand for special Government relief ceased. A special Census taken on the 19th of May 1877, when famine pressure was general and severe, showed that of 62,712 persons employed on relief works, 3471 were manufacturers or craftsmen, 21,840 were holders or sub-holders of land, and 37,401 were labourers. The total cost of the famine was estimated at £206,502, of which £186,184 was spent on public and civil works, and £20,318 on charitable relief. A considerable number of people, chiefly husbandmen, left the District and went to Berar and the Nizám's territory. During the drought a large number of cattle died. The cultivated area fell from 2,151,617 acres in 1876-77 to 2,136,988 in 1878-79.

During the cold season of 1879, from January to March, swarms of rats and mice appeared and ate the grain before it was ripe enough to harvest. Many fields were entirely stripped, and of others only a small portion was saved by gathering the ears while they were still green. About seven-eighths of the crops was wholly destroyed by rats. In Sholápur, about £660 was paid as reward for rats killed, at the rate of 2s. the hundred.

Trade, Communications, etc.—Besides 115 miles of the south-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway from Poona, entering the

District at Pomalvádi in the north-east corner, and crossing in a south-easterly direction towards Gulbarga in the Nizám's Dominions, and eight miles of the East Deccan line of the Southern Maráthá Railway, there are 382 miles of made roads. Of these, three are provincial and seven local fund. The three provincial lines are—the Poona-Haidarábád road, 78 miles; the Bársi road with its extension towards the Nizám's territory, 62 miles; and the Sholápur-Bijápur road, 19 miles. Of the seven local fund roads four are first-class—the Bársi-Pandharpur road, 30 miles; the Mohol-Pandharpur, 24 miles; the Pandharpur-Janoni, 42 miles; and the Jeur-Kármála with its extension towards Ahmadnagar and the Nizám's territory, 27 miles: three are second-class—the Sholápur-Bársi, 42 miles; the Sholápur-Akalkot, 15 miles; and the Jeur-Pandharpur, 43 miles.

Since the opening of the railway in that portion of the District between the Nizám's Dominions and Poona, trade has greatly increased. Next to cotton, a large proportion of which comes from without, the chief exports are oil, oil-seeds, *ghí*, turmeric, and cotton cloth. The imports are salt, piece-goods, yarn, gunny-bags, and iron-ware.

Trade is carried on at the towns and in markets, fairs, village shops, and also by travelling carriers. The largest centres of internal trade are Sholápur, Bársi, and Pandharpur, and next to these Vairág, Mádha, Mohol, Kármála, Akluj, Wate-Pate, and Sángola. Of these, Sholápur, Mohol, and Mádha are near the railway. The number of traders is about 6000, the chief being Lingáyats, Bhátiás, Gujárs, Vánis, Nagars, Márwárís, Bráhmans, Borahs, and Kshattriyas. Forty-two weekly markets are held in the District, at which petty traders, pedlers, and hawkers set up booths and offer for sale their goods, consisting of cotton, grain, groceries, spices, cloth, yarn, oils, earthenware, *ghí*, hides, fuel, etc. Of 19 trading fairs held in the District, one held at Sholápur on the 12th January, three held in Pandharpur in April, July, and November, and one held at Sonári in April, are the most important. The chief articles for sale are cloth, pots, grain, glass bangles, and live stock.

After agriculture, the chief industries of the District are spinning, weaving, and dyeing. The silks and finer sorts of cotton cloth—such as *dhotís* and women's robes—prepared in Sholápur bear a good name. Blankets are also woven in large numbers. Besides hand-loom weaving, a steam spinning and weaving mill, with 20,888 spindles and 175 looms, has lately been established at Sholápur city. Oil-presses of the native type are worked by Telís in many places, and saltpetre is manufactured to some extent by Mhars and Mángs.

Administration.—The revenue collected in 1882–83 from land was £98,990; from stamps, £6890; from excise, £13,110; and by the licence-tax, £3210. Forest proceeds amounted to £820; the local

fund receipts were £6970; and the five municipalities raised an income of £24,615, the only peculiarity being a pilgrim-tax in Pandharpur, and a water-rate in Sholápur. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 4 Assistant Collectors, three of whom are covenanted civilians. The District is provided with the court of a senior Assistant Judge. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 4 courts besides the above. Nineteen officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police force for the protection of person and property consisted of 92 officers and 438 constables, giving 1 man to every 1099 of the population. The total cost was £8724, equal to £1, 18s. per square mile and $3\frac{1}{6}$d. per head of population. There is one jail in the District.

Compared with 45 schools and 516 pupils in 1865, there were, in 1877, 115 schools, with a roll-call of 4648 names, or, on an average, 1 school for every five villages. In 1882–83, there were 176 Government schools, or an average of 1 school for every four villages, with an average attendance of 5708 pupils. Besides these Government schools, there were 4 primary schools inspected by the Educational Department. In 1869, the first girls' school was opened in Bársi. In 1882–83, the number was 4 with 176 names, and an average attendance of 105. The Census of 1881 returned 8795 boys and 204 girls as under instruction, besides 18,824 males and 214 females able to read and write but not under instruction. Four vernacular papers were published in 1884.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, except from March to May, is healthy and agreeable. In the hot season, the mean temperature is 86° F., very hot and oppressive in the day-time, but cool at night. Mean temperature—January, 71·8° F.; February, 76·8° F.; March, 83·7° F.; April, 88° F.; May, 88·9° F.; June, 82·1° F.; July, 78·9° F.; August, 77·9° F.; September, 77·1° F.; October, 77·3° F.; November, 73·8° F.; December, 70·9° F.: annual mean, 78·9° F. In 1883, the maximum temperature at Sholápur was 109° F. in May; the minimum, 46·2° F. in December. The rainy season is pleasant; the sky is more or less overcast, and the rain falls in heavy showers, alternating with intervals of sunshine. The average annual rainfall for a period of 28 years ending 1881 was 28·6 inches. In 1883–84, the rainfall was 39·93 inches. The rainfall is generally unequally distributed, the fall in the western Sub-divisions being very scanty compared with that in the east. During the cold season, from November to February, the atmosphere, with keen easterly and north-easterly winds, is clear and bracing.

Besides fever of an intermittent type, skin diseases such as guinea-worm, itch, and ringworm are prevalent in the Bársi and Kármála Sub-divisions, brought on chiefly by the badness of the well water. Fever

makes its appearance at the end of the rainy season, being due in a great measure to the sudden change of climate. Cholera used every year to break out at Pandharpur during the periodical fairs; but improved sanitary arrangements have to some extent put a stop to this. In 1883–84, 4 dispensaries and the civil hospital at Sholápur afforded medical relief to 589 in-door and 50,037 out-door patients, and 26,000 persons were vaccinated. [For further information regarding Sholápur District, see the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, published under Government orders, and compiled by Mr. J. M. Campbell, C.S., vol. xx., Sholápur District (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1884). Also *An Historical Account of the Poona, Sátára, and Sholápur Districts*, by Mr. W. W. Loch, C.S. (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1877); the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Government.]

Sholápur.—Sub-division of Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the extreme south-east between 17° 22′ and 17° 50′ N. lat., and between 75° 40′ and 76° 13′ E. long. Area, 847 square miles. Population (1872) 181,928; (1881) 149,539, namely, males 76,324, and females 73,215; occupying 20,261 houses, in 1 town and 146 villages. Hindus number 123,589; Muhammadans, 23,253; and 'others,' 2697. Sholápur is waving and devoid of trees, rising in places in small hillocks showing bare rock. The climate is dry; the cold season is clear and bracing. The two chief rivers are the Bhíma and the Sína. The Bhíma forms the southern boundary for about 35 miles; and the Sína runs south through the Sub-division for about 40 miles. In 1882–83, including alienated lands, the total number of holdings was 9533, with an average area of about 54 acres. In 1882–83, the area under actual cultivation was 336,182 acres, of which 7532 acres were twice cropped. Cereals and millets occupied 272,200 acres, of which 234,263 acres were under *joár* (Sorghum vulgare); pulses, 28,467 acres; oil-seeds, 30,341 acres; fibres, 8540 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 4166 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained (including the District head-quarters) 2 civil and 8 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 280 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 228. Land revenue, £16,923.

Sholápur.—Chief town of Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 40′ 18″ N., and long. 75° 56′ 38″ E., on the plain of the Sína, 150 miles by rail from Poona. Area, 8¼ square miles, or 5260 acres. Population (1881) of city, 59,890; of cantonment, 1391; total, 61,281, namely, males 31,282, and females 29,999, occupying 8330 houses. Hindus number 44,387; Muhammadans, 14,780; Jains, 1385; Christians, 511; Pársís, 127; and 'others,' 91.

The small but strong fort in the south-west corner of the city, sur-

Bahmani dynasty (1345). On the dissolution of that kingdom in 1489, Sholápur was held by Zein Khán. But during the minority of his son it was, in 1511, besieged and taken by Kamál Khán, who annexed it, with the surrounding Districts, to the Bijápur kingdom. In 1523, Sholápur formed part of the dowry of Ismáil Adil Sháh's sister, given in marriage to the King of Ahmadnagar. But not being handed over to the Ahmadnagar kingdom, it formed for forty years a source of constant quarrels between the two dynasties, until it was given back to Bijápur as the dowry of the Ahmadnagar princess Chánd Bíbí (1562). On the overthrow of the Bijápur kingdom (1686), Sholápur fell to the Mughals, from whom it was taken by the Maráthás. At the close of the war with the Peshwá in 1818, it was stormed by General Munro.

Since then, the town, no longer exposed to the raids of robbers, has been steadily increasing in importance. Its convenient situation between Poona and Haidarábád has made it, especially since the opening of the railway in 1859, the centre for the collection and distribution of goods over a large extent of country. The chief industry of Sholápur is the manufacture of silk and cotton cloth, more than 5000 persons being engaged as hand-loom weavers, spinners, and dyers. A steam weaving and spinning mill has been established in the town. The machinery is driven by two engines each of 40 horse-power, works 20,888 spindles and 175 looms, and employs 850 hands.

Sholápur town is situated in the centre of a large plain 1800 feet above sea-level, on the watershed of the Adila, a feeder of the Sína. To the south-west, close to the city wall, lies the fort of Sholápur, and farther on are the officers' bungalows of the old cavalry lines, now mostly occupied by railway servants, and the railway station. To the south of the city is the Siddheswar lake, with a temple in the centre. On the south-east bank of the lake is the municipal garden; and about 1000 yards more to the south-east are the Collector's office and bungalow. About 100 to 500 yards south-west of the Collector's office stretch the officers' bungalows of the old cantonment; from 50 to 100 yards west of the officers' bungalows are the Protestant church, the Roman Catholic chapel, and the post-office. About 1000 yards south-east of the *Sadr Bázár* are the Native Infantry lines, and to the south of the lines are the officers' bungalows in the present cantonment limits. The greater part of the old military cantonment of Sholápur has been transferred to the civil authorities, and is now included within municipal limits. The present cantonment covers an area of about 600 acres, just enough for a single Native Infantry regiment. Since the removal of the Native Infantry regiment in 1877, the fort has been placed in charge of the civil authorities.

The city was formerly enclosed by a wall $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circuit. About [illegible] room to the growing town, the municipality pulled down

the whole of the east wall and parts on the south-west and north. The walls, where standing, are 8 to 10 feet high, 4 to 6 feet wide at the base, and 3 to 4 feet wide at the top.

Sholápur fort is an irregular oblong about 230 yards by 176, enclosed by a double line of lofty battlemented and towered walls of rough stone 10 to 20 yards apart, and surrounded, except on the east or Siddheswar lake side, by a wet moat 100 to 150 feet broad and 15 to 30 deep. The whole work is Muhammadan, the outer wall dating from the 14th century, and the inner wall and four great square towers from the 16th and 17th centuries. The outer wall, with battlemented curtains and four corner and 23 side towers, is pierced for musketry; and with openings and vaulted chambers for cannon, rises 20 to 30 feet from the edge of the moat. About 20 yards behind, the inner wall, also towered and battlemented, rises 5 to 10 feet above the outer wall. The inner wall has about 25 towers, exclusive of the four square towers.

Besides the courts of the Sub-divisional and District revenue officers, there are the senior assistant's and the subordinate judge's courts. The houses are mostly built of mud, but sometimes of stone and burnt bricks, and are covered with flat roofs. On account of the absence of any high ground in the neighbourhood, Sholápur is on all sides exposed to the winds. The climate, except during the months of March, April, and May, is agreeable and healthy. The municipality, established in 1853, had an income in 1883-84 of £15,496; incidence of taxation, 5s. 2½d. per head of population. The chief municipal undertaking has been the water-works, which form the chief source of the city water-supply. They were constructed by the municipality between 1879 and 1881, and give a daily supply of about 6 gallons a head. The water is drawn from the Ekruk lower level canal through a line of 10-inch pipes into a settling tank, and thence pumped by steam-power.

Sholavandán.—Town in Madura *táluk*, Madura District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 2′ E., 12 miles from Madura city, on the Vaigai river. Population (1881) 3050, inhabiting 528 houses. Hindus number 2817; Muhammadans, 163; and Christians, 70. The town was built in 1566 by a colony of Vallálars, relatives of the Vijayanagar Governor. The fort commanded a pass on the main road from Dindigul to Madura, and was occupied by Muhammad Yusaf in 1757, to cover the operations of Calliaud against Madura. In the same year it was captured by Haidar Alí, and retaken by the British.

Sholinghar (*Sholangipuram*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 7′ N., long. 79° 29′ E. Population (1881) 5697, inhabiting 797 houses. Hindus number 5483; Muhammadans, 208; Christians, 6. Ten miles from Banáveram station, on the south-west line of the Madras Railway. The scene of one of Coote's greatest

victories in 1781, when, for the third time within a few months, acting on the offensive, with vastly inferior numbers, he drove Haidar Alí's picked troops before him. There is a famous temple here, perched on a high rock, which is much frequented by pilgrims.

Shorápur.—Formerly a tributary State of the Nizám; situated in the south-west corner of the Haidarábád territory, and since 1860 an integral part of the Nizám's Dominions. Bounded on the north by Haidarábád territory, and on the south by the Kistna, which separates it from the Raichúr Doáb. Chief town, Shorápur; lat. 16° 31′ N., long. 76° 48′ E.

By the treaty of 1800, the British Government engaged to enforce 'the just claims' of the Nizám against Shorápur. In 1823, the British Government, having succeeded to the rights of the Peshwá, relinquished the tribute due to it from the Shorápur Rájá, on condition of the Rájá abandoning certain *rusúms* (revenue claims) on the neighbouring British Districts. A succession dispute in 1828 commenced a long series of disasters for Shorápur. The State fell into hopeless arrears to its suzerain the Nizám, and in 1841-42 the portion of it to the south of the Kistna was ceded to the Nizám in commutation. A British officer, Captain Gressly, was in the same year deputed to report on the Shorápur State. He was succeeded by Captain Meadows Taylor (1842), into whose hands the practical administration fell, as the sequel of a series of *zanána* intrigues, domestic quarrels, and acts of extravagance by members of the Rájá's family. The improvements effected by Captain Meadows Taylor, and the era of prosperity and order which he introduced at Shorápur, form a brilliant example of the administration of a Native State by a British officer. They are recorded with veracity in Meadows Taylor's *Story of My Life.*

On the departure of Captain Meadows Taylor in 1853, the affairs of the State began to slip back into their former condition, and the old unsatisfactory relations with the Nizám revived. The Rájá threw in his lot with the rebels in the Mutiny of 1857-58, was sentenced to deportation, and shot himself. By the British treaty of 1860, Shorápur State was ceded to the Nizám in full sovereignty, and has since been an integral part of the Nizám's Dominions.

The State was founded in the 13th century by a chief of the Bedars, a race of aboriginal descent, numerous in Mysore and in the Southern Maráthá Country. The chiefs were styled Naiks. The Bedars were originally freebooters, but in course of time acquired considerable power. Their bands took service under the kings of Bijápur and Golconda, and assisted the Maráthás in the contest with Aurangzeb. They seldom commit murder, and are not petty thieves. A traditional knowledge of the customs and laws of the tribe is preserved by their bards and elders. The Bedars are fine athletic men, fond of hunting

and open-air pursuits. Their moral code is high, and they are said never to violate their oath; but they are illiterate. [For an account of the Bedars and their customs, see Meadows Taylor's *Story of My Life*, pp. 210, 211 (second edition).]

Shorkot.—South-western *tahsíl* of Jhang District, Punjab. Area, 1220 square miles; number of towns and villages, 174; houses, 17,197; families, 20,615. Population (1881) 95,342, namely, males 52,727, and females 42,615. Average density, 79 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 77,616; Hindus, 17,355; Sikhs, 367; and Christians, 4. Of the 174 towns and villages, 109 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 39 from five hundred to a thousand; and 26 from one to five thousand. Principal crops—wheat, *joár*, gram, and cotton. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £11,985. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, and an honorary magistrate; number of police stations (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 51 men; village watch or rural police, 102.

Shorkot.—Ancient town in Jhang District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Shorkot *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 30° 50′ N., and long. 72° 6′ E., among the lowlands of the Chenáb, about 4 miles from the left bank of the river, and 36 miles south-west of Jhang town. The modern town stands at the foot of a huge mound of ruins, marking the site of the ancient city, surrounded by a wall of large antique bricks, and so high as to be visible for 8 miles around. Gold coins are frequently washed out of the ruins after the rains. General Cunningham identifies Shorkot with a town of the Malli attacked and taken by Alexander, and visited by Hiuen Tsiang ten centuries later. General Cunningham infers, from the evidence of coins, that the town flourished under the Greek kings of Ariana and the Punjab, as well as under the Indo-Scythian dynasties up to 250 A.D. It was probably destroyed by the White Huns in the 6th century, and reoccupied in the 10th by the Bráhman kings of Kábul and the Punjab. The modern town is a place of little importance. Population (1881) 2283, namely, Hindus, 1167; Muhammadans, 1104; and Sikhs, 12. Number of houses, 365. Municipal income (1883–84), £153. The town is surrounded by fine groves of date-palms. Many of the buildings are lofty, but most of them are more or less in a state of ruin. A good *bázár*, with a gate at each end, and lined with shops built on a uniform plan; but few of the shops are tenanted. *Tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, school, and rest-house.

Shrávan-belgola (lit. '*Tank of the Srávans or Jains*').—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 51′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 31′ 31″ E., between two rocky hills called Chandra-betta and Indra-betta. Population (1881) 1315. According to Jain tradition, Bhadra Báhu, one of the six immediate disciples of the founder of

their religion, died here while leading a colony from Ujjain into Southern India. He is said to have been accompanied by the celebrated Emperor Chandragupta, who had abdicated the throne and adopted the life of a hermit. These events, borne out by a rock inscription of great antiquity, are assigned to the 4th century B.C. The grandson of Chandragupta is also related to have visited the spot.

On the summit of Chandra-betta stands the colossal statue of Gomateswara, 60 feet high, surrounded by numerous buildings. The hill itself is 3250 feet above sea-level. An inscription on the foot of the statue states that it was erected by Chámunda Ráya, whom tradition places about 60 B.C. The surrounding enclosures bear the name of Gangá Ráya, who belongs to the Hoysálá Ballála period.

The statue is nude, and stands facing the north. The face has the serene expression usually seen in Buddhist statues; the hair is curled in short spiral ringlets over the head, while the ears are long and large. The figure is treated conventionally, the shoulders being very broad, the arms hanging down the sides with the thumbs turned outwards, the waist small. The feet are placed on the figure of a lotus. Representations of ant-hills rise on either side, with figures of a creeping-plant springing from them, which twines over the thighs and arms, terminating in a tendril with bunches of fruit. These symbolize the complete spiritual abstraction of a *yogi*. According to the most reasonable hypothesis, the statue must have been cut out of a rock which projected above the hill; or perhaps the solid summit of the hill may have been itself cut away. The workmanship is still as sharp as if the stone had been newly quarried. Within the enclosure are 72 small statues of a similar description in compartments.

On the face of the opposite rock of Indra-betta are inscriptions cut in ancient characters a foot long. Shrávan-belgola is known to have been an ancient seat of Jain learning, and is still the residence of the chief *gúrú* of that sect; but the establishment was deprived of many of its privileges and emoluments by Tipú Sultán. There is a considerable manufacture of brass utensils, which are exported to distant parts.

Shrígonda.—Sub-division and town in Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SRIGONDA.

Shrívardhan.—Town in Janjira State, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SRIWARDHAN.

Shujábád.—*Tahsíl* of Múltán District, Punjab. Area, 322 square miles; number of towns and villages, 80; houses, 12,301; families, 13,658. Population (1881) 61,622, namely, males 33,394, and females 28,228. Average density, 191 per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 50,705; Hindus, 10,747; Sikhs, 144; Jain, 1. Of the 80 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 37 contain

less than five hundred inhabitants; 22 between five hundred and a thousand; 20 between one and five thousand; and 1 between five and ten thousand. Average area under cultivation for five years ending 1881–82, 110 square miles, or 70,580 acres; principal crops—wheat, 25,839 acres; rice, 5018 acres; *joár*, 4533 acres; indigo, 14,710 acres; cotton, 5880 acres; and sugar-cane, 4180 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £16,452. One *tahsíldár's* court; strength of regular police, 59 men; village watch or rural police, 99.

Shujábád.—Town and municipality in Múltán District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Shujábád *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 29° 53′ N., and long. 71° 20′ E., about 5 miles from the present left bank of the Chenáb. Population (1881) 6458, namely, Hindus, 3970; Muhammadans, 2476; Sikhs, 9; and 'others,' 3. The fort was built by Shujá Khán, one of the Nawábs of Múltán under Ahmad Sháh Duráni, in whose time the town possessed some importance. Municipal income (1883–84), £724, or an average of 2s. 2¾d. per head. The town is chiefly built of brick, and contains some fine native houses. It is the trade centre for the richest portion of the District, and is intersected by two broad *bázárs* which cross each other. North-west of the town is the palace of Shujá Khán, a collection of rather fine brick buildings, now used as the *tahsílí* and police station. Dispensary, school of the Church Missionary Society, *sarái* or native inn, and encamping ground. The surrounding country is irrigated by the Gajjúhatta and Bakhtúwah canals, and yields fine crops of indigo and sugar-cane. Municipal income in 1875–76, £656, or 2s. 1d. per head of population (6268) within municipal limits.

Shútar Gardan.— Mountain pass in Afghánistán, dividing the Kurám and Logar valleys. An important position, commanding the road to Kábul, the possession of which, on the occasion of the retributive campaign after the massacre of Sir Louis Cavagnari in September 1879, enabled General Sir F. Roberts' force to advance on that city and occupy it almost without opposition. The ascent of the pass from the Indian side is slight, though the descent into the Logar valley is long and very steep.

Shwe An-daw.—Pagoda in Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated a few miles north of Thayet-myo town. It dates from the time of Nara-pad-dí-si-thu, King of Burma (about 1167 A.D.), who is noted for his piety, his communication with Ceylon, and his frequent journeys through his dominions. He is said to have received from Ceylon a sacred tooth of Gautama; and while escorting it to his capital, he was warned by portents to deposit it at the place where this pagoda now stands.

Shwe-Dagon.—The great Pagoda of Rangoon, Lower Burma, and the most venerated object of worship in all the Indo-Chinese countries.

Lat. 16° 46′ 40″ N., long. 96° 13′ 50″ E. The annual festival in March is attended by pilgrims from all parts; and so great is its renown that the King of Siam, not long ago, had a handsome *zayat* or resting-place built near. The pagoda stands upon a mound partly natural, partly artificial, in the angle formed by the junction of the Rangoon and Pegu rivers. This mound has been cut into two terraces, the upper of which is 166 feet above the level of the ground, and 900 feet long by 685 wide. The southern approach is covered with handsomely carved wooden roofs, supported on massive teak and masonry pillars, and has at its foot two immense griffins, one on each side. From the centre of the platform rises the profusely gilt, solid brick pagoda, springing from an octagonal base, with a perimeter of 1355 feet, and a gradually diminishing spheroidal outline, to a height of 321 feet, and supporting a gilt iron network *tí* or umbrella in the shape of a cone, and surrounded with bells.

The space around the pagoda is left free for worshippers; but all along the edge of the platform are numerous idol-houses, facing inwards, containing images of Gautama in the usual sitting posture, and in a previous existence receiving from Dipengara, one of his predecessors, the prophetical annunciation that he too should, after the lapse of four *thin-kye* (a *thin-kye* consists of a unit followed by 140 cyphers), and the creation and destruction of 100,000 worlds, attain to Buddha-hood. Strictly speaking, the word *thin-kye* is a corruption of the Sanskrit *asankhya*, meaning innumerable. Between these idol-houses and the main edifice are several bells, and *ta-gun-daing* or sacred posts, each surmounted by the figure of a Karawaik (the carrying bird of Vishnu). The bells are struck by the worshippers with deer antlers, left near for that purpose. On the east side is an enormous bell, 7 feet 7½ inches in diameter at the mouth, which was presented by Bo-daw Payá.

The whole of the early history of this pagoda must be rejected as untrustworthy, but the legend concerning its erection assigns it to the year 588 B.C. The story goes that it was built by two brothers who were guided by a *nát* or spirit into the presence of Gautama, who presented them each with four hairs, and bade them deposit them with certain other relics which had been left by his predecessors on a mountain in Pegu. The guardian of the earth pointed out this peak to the young men, and the sacred gifts were deposited on it under a tree. The first accounts in which any confidence can be placed are those relating to Shin-tsaw-bú, a queen who ruled early in the 16th century. The pagoda has been several times added to and re-gilt—the last time in 1871, when, with the sanction of the British Government, the King of Burma sent a new *tí* from Mandalay, valued at £62,000. The name Shwe-Dagon is derived from the Talaing word *takún*, meaning 'a tree

or log lying athwart,' which has been corrupted in Burmese into Dagon or Dagun. The Burmese word *shwe* means 'golden.' During the first Anglo-Burmese war in 1825–26, the site of the pagoda was abandoned by the Burmese on the fall of Rangoon, and occupied by British troops till the close of the war. In 1852, during the second war, the Burmese anticipated that the British would attack from the south side, which was accordingly defended. But an entrance was effected by our troops on the east, and the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda fell a second time into the hands of the British. The hill on which it stands has been strongly fortified.

Shwe-daung.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Lat. 18° 28′ to 18° 50′ N., long. 95° 10′ to 95° 23′ E. Bounded by Tharawadi on the south, and by the Irawadi on the west. The eastern limit is marked by the low Taung-gyi Hills, which extend from near Prome town into Tharawadi District, and are covered with *eng* trees, forming a tract called the In-daing or *eng* country. Area, 204 square miles. Population (1881) 55,140; imperial revenue, £11,293, and land revenue, £2555. The township comprises 16 revenue circles, each under a *thugyi*. It consists for the most part of a plain, almost entirely under rice. Tobacco and vegetables are grown along the bank of the Irawadi. In the north-east, below Shwe-daung town, palm-trees are cultivated, and from these are extracted large quantities of *tari* (toddy). In the rains, the south-west corner of the township is separated by the Dún-ka-la channel from the Irawadi, and becomes an island. About 5 miles south of Shwe-daung is the Thin-bhyu Lake, supplied by the Irawadi, and 15 feet deep in the rains. The great northern road and the Burma State Railway from Rangoon enter the township through the In-daing, striking the Irawadi at Shwe-daung, whence it proceeds northwards to Prome. This township contains the Shwe-nat-taung Pagoda, the scene of an annual religious fair.

Shwe-daung.—Chief town of the Shwe-daung township, Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; situated about 8 miles below Prome, on the left bank of the Irawadi, and on the great road from Rangoon to the north. Lat. 18° 42′ N., long. 95° 17′ 30″ E. Divided into two quarters by the Kula-chaung. This town is of recent growth, the old Shwe-daung or Shwe-daung Myoma, mentioned in ancient records, being now only a village some miles farther south, opposite Padaung. Population (1881) 12,373, namely Buddhists, 12,118; Muhammadans, 214; Hindus, 25; Christians and 'others,' 16. Accessible by large boats, Shwe-daung forms the port of the Paung-de and In-ma rice plains, the produce of which is largely sent to Prome. The town contains the courts and usual public buildings; also numerous pagodas, monasteries, and *zayats*, or rest-houses.

Shwe-gyin.—District in the Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma;

lying in the valley of the Sit-taung river. Area, 5567 square miles. Population (1881) 171,144 souls. Bounded on the north by Taung-ngu District; on the east by the Paung-laung range and the Salwín Hill Tracts; on the south by Amherst District; and on the west by the Pegu Yoma Hills. After the second Anglo-Burmese war, this District included the Salwín Hill Tracts and also the Tha-tun Sub-division of Amherst District, and was first called the Martaban Province, and then Martaban District. In 1864–65, Martaban was joined to Amherst, and the District was called Shwe-gyin. In 1872, the Sub-division of Yun-za-lin was formed into an independent jurisdiction now known as the Salwín Hill Tracts. Several small transfers have taken place since. Head-quarters at SHWE-GYIN TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—In the north, the District is highly mountainous, both the eastern and western ranges sending down numerous spurs which on the east approach to within a few miles of the Sit-taung. Both chains diminish in height towards the south, and the Pegu Yomas recede, leaving a wide stretch of fertile land. South of Kyaik-to, a town at the southern base of the Paung-laung Hills, the whole country between the Sit-taung and the Bi-lin consists of vast monotonous plains, covered with scrub forest or almost impenetrable elephant grass. At places, a pagoda, or a group of houses surrounded by a few tall palms, marks the village of some fishermen or salt-boilers, who gain a precarious livelihood from the muddy waters of the tidal creeks or the salt-impregnated soil. At high tides, the whole of the coast for miles inland is inundated; and so rapidly does the sea advance over the flats, that little or no chance is offered to the fisherman or turtle-seeker should he have neglected the warning sound of the approaching waters. During the dry season, the upper portion of these plains is easily passable by carts; but in the rains they become one vast sheet of water, with the tops of the tall elephant grass showing above, and almost concealing the pagodas, by which alone the boatman can guide his course.

Both the Pegu Yomas and the Paung-laung mountains are densely wooded, and drained by small perennial streams. The passes over the former are mere tracks winding up ravines, and along the crests of spurs. Across the Paung-laung range are three principal routes,—the northern runs up the valley of the Baw-ga-ta and across the Thayet-pin-kin-dat Hill to Kaw-lu-do, the northern police-post in the Salwín Hill Tracts; the central road goes up the valleys of the Mut-ta-ma and the Me-de to Pa-pun; the southern leads from the source of the Mut-ta-ma to Pa-wa-ta. The Paung-laung range, at the Sek-le hill opposite Shwe-gyin, attains a height of about 4000 feet, and terminates above Kin-ywa in Ke-la-tha, a peak crowned by a conspicuous pagoda, said to have been founded many years ago at the same time as Kyaik-tí-yo, above Sit-taung.

The chief rivers of Shwe-gyin District are the SIT-TAUNG, also called the Taung-ngu and the Paung-laung; and the BI-LIN or Dun-wun. The Sit-taung rises in Upper Burma, and enters Shwe-gyin at its northern end, and, after an exceedingly tortuous course, falls into the Gulf of Martaban by a funnel-shaped mouth 7 or 8 miles wide, up which the spring-tides rush with great violence, forming a bore. This river is navigable throughout its entire length in this District by large boats and steam launches. A chopping sea follows the rolling crest of the bore, and sometimes wrecks a boat in a few minutes.

The most important affluents of the Sit-taung are—the Kun, rising in the Pegu Yomas, and, after an east-south-east course of 60 miles, joins the main stream near Anan-baw; the Ye-nwe, which flows into the Sit-taung, after a south-easterly course of 90 miles, about 6 miles north of Shwe-gyin town; the Youk-thwa, navigable for a few miles above its mouth; the Mun; the Shwe-gyin; and many smaller streams.

The Bi-lin rises in the Salwín Hill Tracts, and runs a southerly course to the Gulf of Martaban. At first it is a rocky mountain torrent, but as soon as it emerges into the plains it deepens rapidly. During the rains it forms the highway between the Sit-taung and Maulmain. At spring-tides, a bore rushes up this river also, inundating the country around for miles. Its feeders are few and insignificant; but during the rains it communicates on the east with the Dun-tha-mi, and on the west with the Sit-taung and intervening rivers.

Shwe-gyin contains five lakes, viz. Tun-daw, Sa-win, Mwe-din, Mi-chaung-gaung, and Nga-thwe-zut. The District has never been surveyed from a geological point of view. The Paung-laung range is composed of gneissose rocks, and the whole of the level and alluvial plains are occupied by a sandy and very homogeneous deposit. Laterite formations prevail at places. The District is said to be rich in minerals. Gold occurs in most of the tributaries of the Shwe-gyin river (lit. 'gold-washing'), but the quantity found does not repay the labour of washing. Copper, lead, tin, galena, antimony, and coal also exist, but are not worked. The chief varieties of timber are teak, *pyin-gado* (Xylia dolabriformis), *pyin-ma* (Lagerstrœmia Flos-Reginæ), and *thit-tsi* (Melanorrhæ usitata).

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 129,485, and that of 1881, 171,144 persons, on an area of 5567 square miles, dwelling in 1 town and 558 villages, and occupying 31,868 houses; unoccupied houses numbered 1617. Density of population, 30·74 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·10, or one village to each 9·9 square miles; houses per square mile, 6·01; persons per occupied house, 5·37. Total population, 171,144, namely, males 89,687, and females 81,457. Classified according to sex and age, there were—under 15 years, boys 39,072, and girls 35,523; total children,

74,595, or 43·6 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 50,615, and females 45,934; total adults, 96,549, or 56·4 per cent. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 958; Muhammadans, 855; Christians, 1250; Buddhists, 158,149; Nat-worshippers, or persons of indigenous race whose sole religion consists in a kind of worship of spirits or 'demons,' 9932. Christians were divided into European British subjects, 14; Eurasians, 40; and native converts, 1196. Of the last-named, 1169 were Baptists. The Muhammadans were thus returned according to sect—Sunnís, 673; Shiás, 132; and 'others,' 50.

Classified ethnologically, in the language table of the Census Report, Karens numbered 52,400; Burmese, 80,195; Talaings, 22,282; Taungthas, 5715; Shans, 8135; natives of India, 1780; Chinese, 280; Europeans and Eurasians, 54; 'others,' 303. The Karens are most numerous in the tract east of the Sit-taung, and belong to two great families, Sgaw and Pwo; many of them have been converted to Christianity by the American Baptist missionaries. The Talaings chiefly inhabit the plains; the Burmese, the country lying north of the Sit-taung. The Yabaings, who are engaged in the rearing of silkworms, are found mainly on the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yomas in Baw-ní. The Hindus, Muhammadans, and Chinese are all immigrants since the British occupation, as are also many of the Shans, of whom a whole colony settled some years ago at Win-ka-nin, at the junction of the Mut-ta-ma and Shwe-gyin rivers.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 returned the following six groups:—(1) Professional, including civil and military officials, males 2086, and females 108; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, males 80, and females 52; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., males 2977, and females 2449; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, males 30,393, and females 27,351; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, males 6768, and females 10,332; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, males 47,383, and females 41,165. The boat population numbered 1312, namely, males 1122, and females 190, living in 290 boats.

The only place in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants is SHWE-GYIN town, founded in the last century before the Burmese conquest by Alompra. It contains the usual public buildings; population (1881) 7519. Other towns are—KYAIK-TO, an old town at the foot of the Paung-laung range, containing a court-house, market-place, and police station; BI-LIN, with a population of 2606, founded in 1824, and containing a court-house and the usual public offices; SITTAUNG, on the Sit-taung river, said to have been built in 588 A.D., contains

court-house, etc.; WIN-BA-DAW, noted for its manufacture of pottery, and as the chief halting-place for boats proceeding up the Sit-taung; KYAUK-GYI, at the foot of the Paung-laung mountains, 34 miles above Shwe-gyin, with trade in areca-nuts; Mún, Thú-yeh-tha-mí, Pú-zun-myaung, with manufacture of pottery; Nyaung-le-bin, etc. Out of the 559 towns and villages in the District in 1881, no less than 233 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, and 250 from two to five hundred; while 61 had from five hundred to one thousand, 14 more than one thousand, and only 1 above five thousand.

Agriculture.—Agriculture supports 117,263 persons, or 68·52 per cent. of the population. Of the total area of the District (5567 square miles), 174 square miles were cultivated in 1881, of which 10·2 square miles were non-revenue-paying; the remainder, 163·8 square miles, were assessed for revenue; the area still available for cultivation being 3581 square miles. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £15,892; average incidence of assessment, 3s. 0¼d. per acre of cultivated land. Average number of acres per head of agricultural population, 0·95. The most fertile portions lie along the right bank of the Sit-taung river, towards the south. The principal crop is rice, of which 25 varieties are enumerated. Areca-nuts are very largely grown on the hillsides, near running streams, the water being diverted into the palm groves by artificial channels. Cotton is sown in the *taungyas* or hill-clearings, where the hill tribes carry on a nomadic agriculture. Tobacco, vegetables, and oil-seeds are also produced, but the out-turn is small. Rice is the only crop of which the cultivation has steadily increased. In 1883–84, the area under rice was 87,908 acres; sugar-cane, 3040; vegetables, 1357; areca-nuts, 3738; mixed fruit-trees, 2284; cotton, 1; oil-seeds, 724; plantains, 885; betel-leaf, 414; tobacco, 57; cocoa-nut, 7; *taungyas* cultivation, 15,050; and land under miscellaneous cultivation not assessed, 649 acres; total area of cultivated land, 116,114 acres, or 181·4 square miles. The area under rice in 1871–72 was 50,773 acres. The chief rice tracts are in the Kaw-li-ya, Kwin-da-la, Nyaung-le-bin, Ye-hla, Kyauk-gyi, and Gamun-aing circles, the last being the most important. The average size of a holding is between 3 and 4 acres. As a general rule, the land is held by small proprietors, and is very rarely rented out, and never for a long term of years. Occasionally labourers are hired for rice cultivation, and are always paid in kind.

In 1883–84, the average rate of rent of land suited for rice was returned at 5s. 6d. an acre; the average produce per acre being 900 lbs. Price of produce per *maund* of 80 lbs.—rice, 6s. 6d.; cotton, 11s.; sugar, 11s.; salt, 4s. 9d.; tobacco, £4, 5s. 3d.; oil-seeds, 8s.; peas, 5s. The price of a plough bullock is £7; sheep and goats, each

16s.; fish, per lb., 3d. The agricultural stock consisted of—cows and bullocks, 19,410; horses and ponies, 211; sheep and goats, 1075; pigs, 5000; elephants, 161; buffaloes, 34,938; carts, 7556; ploughs, 7321; and boats, 1571.

Manufactures, etc.—The only manufactures in the District are pots, salt, and silk-spinning. The pots are made at Pu-zun-myaung, a village a few miles above Shwe-gyin town, where clay is procured on the spot; at Kwin-dala, a little lower down; at Sheip-gyi in the Kyauk-gyi township; and at Win-ba-daw in the Sit-taung township. At Pu-zun-myaung, the pots are made for export to Rangoon and Maulmain and intermediate towns, but at the other places for local use only. The largest-sized pots are sold for 10s., and the others for 3s. per hundred. Each kiln holds 1000 pots, among which are about 200 of the largest kind. The annual produce of one man's labour is estimated at 1000 unburned pots a month, or 7000 in the season, *i.e.* from November to May. The industry has been in existence for about thirty years. The pots made at Win-ba-daw are solely for the salt-boilers, the pot-makers exchanging for salt, delivered at the rate of 365 lbs. for every 100 pots. The yearly out-turn averages 15,000 pots.

In the Bhaw-ni and Anan-baw circles, at the foot and on the lower slopes of the Pegu Yomas, silkworms are bred by the Yabaings as in PROME DISTRICT. The annual produce of silk is about 9000 lbs., the value of which on the spot is £450. The quantity exported, chiefly to Prome and Shwe-daung, where, on account of the number of skilled weavers, there is the best market for it, is estimated at two-thirds of the total produce, or about 6000 lbs.

Of made roads there are 55 miles in the District; but cart travelling is easy in the plains, and along the left bank of the Sit-taung river a fairly good road leads to Bi-lin *viâ* Sit-taung, Kyaik-to, and Kin-ywa. King Tabin Shwe-ti, who reigned over the Talaing kingdom from 1540 to 1550, made a road from Pegu to Taung-ngu with rest-houses and gardens at intervals for the use of travellers. This road still exists, but is passable in dry weather only. During the rains, communication is carried on almost everywhere by boat; the total length of waterway is 250 miles. The journey from Maulmain to the Sit-taung is made *viâ* Win-ba-daw on the west, and the Shwe-le Canal on the east, which is connected with the Bi-lin river. To facilitate intercourse with Rangoon, an artificial canal has been cut from Myit-kyo on the Sit-taung to the Ka-ya-shu creek, and thence by the Paing-kyun channel into the Pegu river.

Administration.—In 1857–58, the total revenue of Shwe-gyin District amounted to £29,200. At the end of 1865–66, the whole of the Martaban Sub-division was transferred to Amherst District. In 1881–82, the imperial income of the District was £41,995, and

local funds yielded £5141, making altogether a gross revenue of £47,136, of which the land and capitation taxes and the fisheries form the chief items. For administrative purposes the District is divided into 4 townships, viz. Sit-taung, Bi-lin, Kyauk-gyi, and Shwe-gyin. These comprise 26 revenue circles, each of which is in charge of a *thugyi*, under the Deputy Commissioner or his subordinates.

For some years after British annexation, the country continued in a disturbed state. Whilst Min-laung was in rebellion in Yun-za-lin, a Shan prisoner, formerly a *thugyi*, effected his escape, and openly proclaimed himself on the side of Min-laung. The native officer in charge was murdered in cold blood, but a small detachment was immediately sent against the rebels, who were quickly dispersed. A strong police force was then constituted, which in 1881 consisted of 356 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 16 square miles and every 480 of the population. The total cost was £7505. The number of prisoners confined in the small lock-up at Shwe-gyin town was 57 in 1881. Besides the ordinary jail service, they are employed in oil and rice-cleaning mills.

The State middle-class school in 1881 had an average daily attendance of 62 pupils, all studying English. The American Baptist missionaries have also boys' and girls' schools for the Karens. But with these exceptions, the education of the people is entirely in the hands of the Buddhist monks and of a few laymen, who have opened village schools for instruction in reading and writing. The Census of 1881 returned 8743 boys and 666 girls as under instruction, besides 23,838 males and 5551 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

Climate.—Except in the hills, the climate is generally healthy. The heat is excessive from March till May; but a refreshing breeze blows from six to seven P.M. In 1883–84, the highest reading of the thermometer in the shade in May was 101° F.; the lowest reading in December was 56° F. Towards the end of May, the rains are ushered in by violent thunderstorms. The average annual rainfall for thirteen years ending 1881 was 144·5 inches. In 1883 the rainfall was 139·7 inches. The prevalent disease is fever. Number of patients treated at the dispensary (1883), 9881, of whom 289 were in-patients. In 1883, 4611 births and 2647 deaths were registered. [For further particulars regarding Shwe-gyin District, see the *British Burma Gazetteer*, compiled by authority (Government Press, Rangoon, 1879), vol. ii. pp. 643–662. Also the *British Burma Census Report* for 1881, and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Government of Burma.]

Shwe-gyin.—Township in the centre of Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; lying on both sides of the Sit-taung

river. Bounded north by Taung-ngu District, east by the Paung-laung range, south by Pegu, and west by Tharawadi and Prome Districts. The eastern and western borders are mountainous, and covered with dense forest, but between the lower slopes of the hills and the Sit-taung lie fertile tracts of rice land. The other principal rivers are the Kyu and the Da-la-nun on the east, and the Shwe-gyin on the west. Most of these are navigable for some distance during the rains. In the west, the township is traversed by numerous fair-weather cart-tracks; and the Sit-taung Valley (State) Railway also runs through it. The town of Shwe-gyin lies within this township, but it is not under the charge of the Extra-Assistant Commissioner. Chief villages—Pú-zun-myaung, the seat of a large manufacture of earthen pots; and Nyaung-le-bin. Population (1881) 58,255; gross revenue, £10,691.

Shwe-gyin.—Chief town and head-quarters of Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma; situated in lat. 17° 55′ N., and long. 96° 57′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Sit-taung river, at the confluence of the Shwe-gyin river. Population (1881) 7519, namely, Hindus, 283; Muhammadans, 427; Christians, 124; Buddhists, 6684; and 'others,' 1. Extending across the angle formed by the junction of the two rivers is a low line of laterite hills, on which stand the barracks of the small garrison, and a few houses, the remnant of the large cantonment established here after the second Anglo-Burmese war. Where these abut on the Sit-taung, north of the town, is the old fort and stockade, which the Burmese evacuated on hearing of the advance of the British column from Martaban to Taung-ngu in 1853. The main portion of the town, which is built regularly, lies in the low land between the Sit-taung and the Shwe-gyin, and during the rains is to a great extent flooded. The inhabitants are principally engaged in trade. The town contains the usual offices of a Deputy Commissioner, police station, post and telegraph offices, hospital and dispensary, school, and forest office for the examination of timber floated down the Sit-taung. Shwe-gyin is a place of modern growth.

Shwe-gyin. — River in Shwe-gyin District, Tenasserim Division, Lower Burma. It rises in the high mountains north-east of Shwe-gyin, and falls into the Sit-taung at that town. Above Shwe-gyin, where it receives the Ma-da-ma from the south, and where its channel suddenly deepens, the river is only navigable by the smallest boats. Its bed is sandy, and in places rocky.

Shwe-laung. — Township in Thun-gwa District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; extending northwards from the sea-coast for nearly 100 miles, between the Pya-ma-law and the Irawadi rivers. Area, about 1150 square miles. In the north, the country consists of a plain covered with scrub forest; the lower portion is cut up into islands by numerous inter-communicating creeks, and is dotted with temporary

fishing hamlets. Shwe-laung comprises 6 revenue circles. Population (1881) 46,716; gross revenue, £19,203.

Shwe-laung. — Head-quarters of Shwe-laung township, Thun-gwa District, Lower Burma, and the seat of an Extra-Assistant Commissioner; situated in lat. 16° 44′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 23′ 30″ E., on the Irawadi.

Shwe-le.—River in Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; rising in the western slopes of the Ko-dek spur of the Pegu Yomas. It flows in a south-westerly direction, traversing the centre of the plain between the Yomas on the east and the Prome hills on the west, till it falls into the Myit-ma-ka, north of the village of Kin-than. This river is known by the names of Shwe-le, We-gyi, Wek-put, and Kyun-kyun-gya, in various portions of its course. During the rains, boats of 500 bushels burden can ascend the river as far as Tha-bye-paung-gyí village. The Shwe-le drains a rich teak country; and several attempts have been made to facilitate the removal of the felled logs to the Irawadi, but without success. This is owing to the numerous hill torrents that rush into the Shwe-le during the rains, and bring with them the forest debris, which during the dry season has rolled into their beds. Thus obstructions are formed; and the foaming water in a few hours bursts the banks, and either continues its course onward in the old channel, or cuts for itself a new one in the soft soil of the plain.

Shwe-le. — Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; extending along the western slopes of the Pegu Yomas from lat. 18° 28′ to 18° 51′ N., and from long. 95° 30′ to 95° 58′ E. It in cludes the old townships of Shwe-le, Ywa-bein, and Myo-daung, and is divided into 12 revenue circles. The whole country, except in the south-west, is hilly and covered with valuable timber. The other chief products are rice, cotton, and mulberry. The principal streams are the North and South Na-win and the Tin-gyí, but all are unnavigable within this township. Population (1881) 32,301; gross revenue, £3804.

Shwe-maw-daw. — Pagoda in the old fortified town of Pegu, Rangoon District, Lower Burma. It is a pyramidal, solid brick building, rising to a height of 324 feet from an octagonal base, each side of which is 162 feet long. It stands upon two terraces, the lower one being a parallelogram, with its sides 1390 feet long. The pagoda is surrounded by two tiers of smaller temples; the lower tier contains 75, and the upper 53.

The Shwe-maw-daw, in common with most of the sacred edifices in Burma, is connected with a legendary visit of Gautama. Tradition asserts that whilst Gautama was staying on the Mat-ku-la Hill, near the sources of the Yun-za-lin river, he was visited by the two brothers Ma-ha-tha-la and Tsu-la-tha-la of Zaung-du, a village about 20 miles above the modern town of Pegu. To them Gautama gave two hairs;

and, foreseeing that in the 1116th year of his religion the capital of a powerful kingdom would be founded at Han-tha-wad-dí, he directed that these sacred relics should be enshrined on a hill close by Ma-ha-tha-la; and Tsu-la-tha-la obtained the aid of the Thagya king of their native town in carrying out Gautama's instructions. The King of Zaung-du placed certain *náts* or spirits to guard the shrine, made grants of money and land to the pagoda, and dedicated a number of people to its service.

The Burmese chronicle is very vague and fragmentary, until it comes to what may be called the historical period. In the year 1116 of Gautama's era (573 A.D.), Tha-ma-la and Wí-ma-la established the kingdom and city of Han-tha-wad-dí, of which Tha-ma-la was the first sovereign. Finding the Shwe-maw-daw still in existence, he added to it and dedicated 25 families to its service. Successive sovereigns kept the pagoda in repair. In 1209 A.D., A-nú-ma-ra-za, the twelfth king of the original dynasty, obtained a holy tooth from the King of Tha-tun to enshrine in this pagoda; and Dham-ma-ze-di, who came to the throne in 1502, received from the King of Ceylon a present of 100,000 paving-stones, of which 50,000 were used in paving the court or upper terrace. Towards the end of the 18th century, on the occasion of a visit from the King of Burma, the pagoda was thoroughly repaired, and the *tí* or umbrella canopy re-gilt. In June 1852, on the outbreak of the second Anglo-Burmese war, the Shwe-maw-daw was the scene of some sharp fighting previous to the capture of the town of Pegu by the British.

Shwe-myin-din.—Pagoda in the Ka-ma township of Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Its name, which means 'conspicuous,' is derived from its position. It is said to date from about 100 A.D.; and subsequently, as it was found that the desires of many who visited this shrine were accomplished, it received its second name of Shwe-tsu-taung-byi, or 'prayers fulfilled.'

Shwe-nat-taung.—Pagoda in Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma; about 16 miles south of Prome town. It is said to have been erected by San-da-de-wí, the queen of Dut-ta-baung, the founder of Prome (*circa* 442 B.C.). The building has been since added to and repaired, and being profusely gilt, stands out conspicuously on a low hill. Behind it are six other pagodas. The annual festival held in March is attended by about 20,000 people.

Shwe-nyaung-bin.—River in Bassein District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Falls into the Bassein river in lat. 17° 1′ N., and long. 94° 55′ E., and communicates with the Da-ga by several creeks. It is from 100 to 150 feet wide in its lower portion, but navigable by large boats only during the rains.

Shwe-san-daw.—Pagoda near Twan-te in Rangoon District, Pegu

Division, Lower Burma; more venerated by the Talaings than even the great Shwe-Dagon of Rangoon. According to its sacred history, it was erected in 577 B.C. by Thamein-taw-byín-yan, the King of Ka-bin, and his queen, as a shrine for three of Gautama's hairs given to him by three pilgrims from Ceylon, on the occasion of their visiting him whilst he was tarrying in the Zin-gyaik Hills. Subsequently, in 538 B.C., four more holy hairs were deposited in the pagoda by King Thamein-taw-byin-gnya-kan-de and a hermit named Gyi-ri-ren-ga. Near the Shwe-san-daw is a grove of *thwt-ta-bat* trees (Sapota sp.), seven in number, the only ones in Pegu. The trees were cut down, it is said, by order of the Talaing rulers, when the Burmese conquered their country, because the produce was a royal fruit to be eaten by none but the monarch, and the present trees are shoots of the old stumps.

Shwe-san-daw.—Pagoda in Prome town, Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. It is situated on a hill about half a mile from the bank of the Irawadi, and gives its name to a quarter of the town. The building is gilt all over, and is solid. Its height is 180 feet, and it occupies an area of 11,025 square feet. It is surrounded by 83 small gilt niches, called Ze-di-yan, each containing an image of Gautama. The pagoda stands on a paved platform, approached by four flights of steps, two of which, the northern and the western, are covered with elaborately carved roofs supported on massive teak posts. The gilt iron network *ti*, or conical top, is 10 feet in diameter at its base. There are on the platform 12 or 13 bells attached to massive cross-bars, which are struck with deers' antlers by those who come to worship.

This pagoda is supposed to have been first erected by two brothers, I-zi-ka and Pa-li-ka. Tradition alleges that when Gautama arrived near Prome, and was walking on the island of Zin-yan, he was accosted by a *naga* or dragon, who begged for some sacred hairs to enshrine in a temple. Gautama refused this request, saying that the glory of building a pagoda to contain his relics must be reserved for two brothers who had gone on a trading expedition to Thu-wun-na-bhu-mi or Tha-htun. The *naga* then presented to Gautama an emerald box, praying that as he could not receive the sacred hairs, he might at least contribute the receptacle for them. His gift was accepted, and shortly afterwards I-zi-ka and Pa-li-ka anchored at a place known to this day as Mya-ywa or 'Emerald Village,' and discovered the relics. Having heard of Gautama's prediction, that on the site of the modern Prome the capital of a powerful kingdom would be founded, they proceeded thither, and after considerable difficulty built the pagoda on the hill on which it now stands. Seven days after their departure for their native place, the pagoda sank into the earth. Owing to the prayers of King Dut-ta-baung, the founder of ancient Prome, the pagoda reappeared, and the king restored it.

The Burmese records give no further account of the building, and oral tradition is all we have to rely upon. In 1753, Alaung-payá coated it with gold; and in 1841, King Tharawadi thoroughly repaired the pagoda, which had been damaged by an earthquake, and put on it a new *tí* studded with jewels. Since then it has been again partially destroyed by another earthquake. It has lately been re-gilt, at an estimated cost of about £2500, raised by public subscription. The annual festival is held on the full moon of Tabaung, corresponding to March.

Shwe-thek-lut (lit. '*Golden Life Preserved*').—Pagoda in Thayet-myo town, Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. It was erected by Min-gyí-swa-saw-ke, the second king of the Ava dynasty, about 1373 A.D., as a thankoffering for the preservation of his life when he, as a child, was taken captive in Thayet-myo by the King of Arakan. This building is remarkable as being one of the most southern hollow pagodas; in Upper Burma there are many of this kind, but in the lower country the great majority are of the solid bell-shaped pattern.

Shwe-tsu-taung-byí.—Pagoda in Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SHWE-MYIN-DIN.

Shwe-tsway-daw.—Pagoda in Thayet-myo District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* SHWE AN-DAW.

Siáldah.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated just outside the limits of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 35′ N., long. 88° 26′ E. Terminus of the Eastern Bengal and Calcutta and South-Eastern Railways. Seat of a large transit trade.

Siálkot (*Sealkote*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 44′ and 32° 50′ N. lat., and between 74° 12′ and 75° 3′ E. long. Area, 1958 square miles; population (1881) 1,012,148 souls. Siálkot forms the north-western District of the Amritsar (Umritsur) Division. It is bounded on the north-west by the river Chenáb and its tributary the Távi, which separate it from Gujrát District; on the north-east by the Jamú Province of Kashmír State; on the east by Gurdáspur District; on the south-east by the Rávi, which separates it from Amritsar and Gurdáspur Districts; and on the west by Gujránwála and Lahore Districts. It is an oblong tract of country, occupying the submontane portion of the Rechna or Rávi-Chenáb *doáb*; having a length from north-west to south-east of a little over 50 miles, with an average breadth of 44 miles. Siálkot stands twenty-fourth in order of area, and second in order of population among the thirty-two British Districts of the Punjab, and comprises 1·84 per cent. of the total area, and 5·39 per cent. of the total population of the Province. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of SIALKOT.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Siálkot, occupying the uppermost

portion of the Rechna Doáb, stretches in a comparatively unbroken level from the valley of the Rávi on the south-east, to that of the Chenáb on the north-western border. Along the coast of either great boundary river, a narrow fringe of alluvial lowland marks the central depression in which they run; while above them rise the high banks which form the limits of their wider beds. Parallel to the Rávi, another stream, the Degh, which rises in the Jamú (Jummoo) Hills, traverses the south-eastern corner of the District, fringed on either side, like the greater rivers, by a strip of alluvial soil. The remainder of the surface consists of a level plain, slightly submontane in character, lying at a distance of 20 miles from the outermost range of the Himálayan system. Midway between the Rávi and the Chenáb, however, a high dorsal tract stretches from beyond the Jamú border far into the heart of the Doáb. Spreading in its northern portion from the valley of the Degh to the high bank of the Chenáb, it narrows gradually as it runs south-westward, till it finally terminates in an apex about 10 miles beyond Pasrúr, thus forming an irregularly triangular wedge.

The neighbourhood of the hills has imparted to the general aspect of the District a greenness and fertility rare among the Punjab plains. More than two-thirds of its area have already been brought under the plough; and of the remainder, perhaps a third more is capable of being brought under cultivation by careful tillage. The upper portion of the District, especially close to the hills, produces excellent crops; but the southern portion, farther removed from the influence of the rains, shows a marked decrease of fertility. The poorest lands lie in the triangular dorsal ridge, where the naturally arid soil depends entirely for its water-supply upon the local rainfall. Elsewhere, irrigation from wells or hill streams has turned the whole country into a waving sheet of crops. The alluvial lowlands of the Chenáb and the Degh, however, suffer in parts from the injurious saline efflorescence known as *reh*. Between the Degh and the Rávi, too, the wild and unproductive upland grows more and more impregnated with saltpetre as it recedes from the hills, till near the Lahore border it merges into a tangled jungle of brushwood and reeds.

Numerous small torrents traverse the north-eastern tract. Several swamps (*jhíls*) studded over the face of the country are useful for irrigation, and many of them have had their capacity considerably increased by artificial embankments, in which cases the water is made available by means of ducts. The two largest marshes are those of Satrah and Manjke. The first is artificial, and covers an area of 450 acres, supplying water to 12 villages. The Manjke marsh is 687 acres in area, with a depth in parts of 8 feet, and also irrigating 12 villages. The Daskah and Luriki marshes, formerly very large, have been recently drained. They do not now retain water, and almost the whole of their area has

been brought under the plough. Some of the minor marshes are mere swamps, the beds of which are to a great extent cultivated with rice as the water dries up in the winter months. Traces of ancient canals may still be observed, some of which might repay the trouble of restoration. The most remarkable owed its origin to Alí Mardán Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, and once brought the waters of the Távi to supply the imperial gardens at Sháhdara.

There is nothing approaching the description of a forest, or even of a good-sized wood, in the District; old trees are rare. The trees commonly found in the low-lying country are of recent growth, occurring here and there singly or in clumps around villages and wells. Much has been done of late years in planting trees along the public roads. The people also are beginning to take interest in arboriculture, and orchards and gardens are springing up all over the District.

The mineral products are few and unimportant. Beds of *kankar* (limestone nodules) of good quality occur in abundance along the high bank of the Chenáb, 3 miles north of Siálkot cantonment, and at Marákiwal, Godhpúr, and Ballanwála, the latter a mile west from the cantonment. At the same localities limestone is found; but lime of a better quality is obtained from the boulders of certain streams or from the banks of the Távi, below Jamú. The marsh at Satrah is famous for yielding a clay called *wani*, which is used for pottery, and is valued for its property of receiving a colour when baked. Good pottery clays are also procured on the Lúndá *nallá* above Pasrúr. Saltpetre is found in the earth of old village sites (*tibbá*), but the manufacture is extremely limited.

A few wolves are the only representatives of the carnivora in the District, while even deer and hares find little cover in so highly cultivated a tract. A few wild hogs and antelope are found. Wild geese, ducks, and water-fowl are abundant in the cold weather in the marshes and upon the river banks and islands. Quail abound, partridges are scarce.

History.—Rasálu, Rájá of Siálkot, who lived somewhere about the first century after Christ, forms the great centre of all the local legends. General Cunningham identifies this possibly mythical hero with the son of Sálivahána, the Vikramáditya who overthrew the Sakas about 78 A.D. Tradition universally points to the town of Siálkot as the Rájá's capital, while a thousand stories keep alive his memory among the Hindus of the hills and the submontane tract. After Rasálu's death, however, his kingdom fell under a curse, and remained desolate for three hundred years.

About 643 A.D., the Rájput princes of Jamú overran the District, which they held until its union with the Muhammadan Empire. For a

while the Hindu rulers managed to retain their possessions in the plains by the payment of a tribute to the Delhi Emperors; but under the Mughals, Siálkot formed part of the Province (*súbah*) of Lahore, and did not revert to its ancient princes until after the dissolution of the Mughal organization in the days of Ahmad Sháh Duráni. During that stormy period, however, the Rájput Rájás of Jamú once more made good their claim to the fertile and level belt which stretched at the foot of their mountainous principality. In 1740, Ranjít Deo, the ruling Rájá, under a grant from the Duráni Emperor, possessed himself, by force of arms, of a strip of territory stretching from Dinga in the Jetch Doáb to the valley of the Rávi. A powerful Pathán family then occupied the town of Siálkot itself; while the remainder of the District was harried by bands of Sikhs, under the command of the Bhangi chieftains and of Charrat Singh, grandfather of Ranjít Singh, the Mahárájá of the Punjab. In 1774, Brij Ráj Deo, son of the Jamú Rájá, rebelled against his father, and called in the aid of Charrat Singh. The Sikh chieftain gladly embraced the opportunity; but Ranjít Deo met him on the banks of the river Basantar, as he marched on Jamú, and utterly defeated the Sikh forces, while Charrat Singh himself lost his life in the engagement. The Bhangi chieftains, who had just wrested Siálkot town from its Pathán masters, and dreaded the rising power of their co-religionist, gave their aid to the Rájá in this campaign. Mahá Singh, son and successor of the defeated chief, then turned southward, and began to establish his authority in the lower part of the Doáb.

Meanwhile, Ranjít Deo died in 1783, and was succeeded by his rebellious son, Brij Ráj Deo, a man of debauched habits, quite unfit to hold his own against the active and vigorous Sikhs. Mahá Singh seized upon the opportunity, and advanced upon Jamú in 1784 with a considerable force. The new Rájá fled to the hills on his approach, and Mahá Singh sacked the defenceless capital without striking a blow. He did not attempt, however, to secure his conquest, but retired at once to his head-quarters at Gujránwála. The Bhangi chiefs of Siálkot and the Kanhyas from the Bári Doáb thereupon completed the overthrow of the Jamú prince, and wrested from him, by 1786, all his father's acquisitions in the plains. Brij Ráj Deo himself finally fell in battle, making a last effort to resist the Sikh encroachments. The whole District thus passed into the hands of the rising sect, and the greater part became the appanage of retainers of the Bhangi confederacy or *misl*. The Kanhya chiefs took the rest, except a few villages which fell to Mahá Singh.

But Ranjít Singh, son of the last-named prince, soon disturbed this amicable arrangement of territory in the Rechna Doáb. In 1790, the future Mahárájá appropriated part of the Bhangi domains; and in 1807 he made himself master of Pasrúr. In the same year, the Sardárs of

Siálkot ventured to question his title to these new acquisitions; whereupon Ranjít Singh promptly attacked and defeated them, adding Siálkot to his growing dominions. By the end of 1810 the whole District had been swallowed up; while, a few years later, the Mahárájá made himself supreme from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Suláimán Mountains.

British rule was extended to Siálkot in 1849, after the second Sikh war. On the first distribution of the Province into Divisions and Districts, the whole upper portion of the Rechna Doáb was formed into a single charge, having its head-quarters at Wazírábád. In 1850, however, this extensive District underwent sub-division, being formed into the two new Districts of Gujránwála and Siálkot, while portions were made over to Gurdáspur and Lahore. Subsequent transfers of territory have brought the boundaries to their present shape.

During the Mutiny of 1857, Siálkot was the scene of an outbreak of the native troops stationed in the cantonments, who murdered the Brigadier commanding the station, besides other British officers, and the chaplain, with his wife and child. The mutineers laid siege to the European residents in the fort, and remained masters of the whole District for a short time. The treasury was plundered, and all the records destroyed; the prisoners in jail were released, and the houses of the residents were looted by the mutineers, aided by the bad characters from jail, and by the police and the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages. The District, however, was soon recovered. The ringleaders, including the two principal native officers of police, and the jail overseer, were summarily executed; and soon afterwards 141 of the rebellious sepoys, who had taken refuge within Kashmír territory, were handed over by the Mahárájá's officers, tried by court martial, and most of them hanged at Gurdáspur and Siálkot.

Population.—The area at present included in Siálkot District had a population of 805,837 at the Census of 1855. By 1868 the number had increased to 1,004,695, showing an increase of 198,858, or 24·7 per cent. At the last Census in 1881, the population of Siálkot was returned at 1,012,148, showing a further slight increase of 7453, or less than 1 per cent., in thirteen years. Siálkot ranks third in point of density among the Punjab Districts, being only exceeded in this respect by Jálandhar and Amritsar. The slight increase is due to the fact that the emigration to other Districts in the Punjab greatly exceeds the immigration. Indeed, were it not for the large influx of fugitives from the Kashmír famine in 1878–80, who constitute more than three-fourths of the immigrants, the Census of 1881 would have shown an actual decrease of population, the emigration having more than counterbalanced the natural increase of births over deaths.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows: —Area of District, 1958 square miles, with 9 towns and 2303 villages;

number of houses, 143,205, namely, occupied 114,262, and unoccupied 28,943; number of families, 224,052. Total population, 1,012,148, namely, males 539,661, and females 472,487; proportion of males, 53·3 per cent. Average density of population, 517 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·18; houses per square mile, 73; persons per village, 438; persons per house, 8·8. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—below 15 years, males 217,883, and females 186,633; total children, 404,516, or 40 per cent. of the whole population: 15 years and upwards, males 321,778, and females 285,854; total, 607,632, or 60 per cent. of the whole population.

Religion.—As regards religious distinctions, the Muhammadans form the great bulk of the population, and in 1881 numbered 669,712, or 66·16 per cent. of the total. Hindus numbered 299,311, or 29·57 per cent.; Sikhs, 40,195, or 4 per cent.; Jains, 1388; Christians, 1535; and Pársís, 7. The principal Muhammadan tribes include—Sayyids, 12,849; Shaikhs, 11,636; Patháns, 4118; Mughals, 4537; Kashmírís, 19,153; and Khojahs, 5550. These are the Muhammadans by race descent, as apart from the descendants of converts from Hindu castes. The Játs, the most numerous tribe in the District, who form the great bulk of the agricultural class, number 266,040, of whom 170,878 are Muhammadans, 95,147 Hindus and Sikhs, and 15 of other religions. The Rájputs number 57,269, consisting of 45,534 Muhammadans and 11,735 Hindus and Sikhs. The Awáns, the leading race of the submontane tract, are a tribe of great social and political importance, 19,753 in number, and exclusively Muhammadans. Arains, 65,241, and Gújárs, 11,642, are almost exclusively Muhammadans. Of the Chuhras, 78,980 in number, 19,617 are Hindus and Sikhs; Tarkháns, 41,781, include 9290 Hindus or Sikhs; and Kumbhárs, 29,713, include 10,304 Hindus and Sikhs. The following are the other principal classes met with in the District, mainly Muhammadans, but nearly all of them with a greater or lesser Hindu and Sikh element—Jhinwárs, 35,314; Megs, 28,705; Náis, 20,569; Lohárs, 18,584; Barwálas, 16,901; Mochís, 15,003; Dhobís, 13,988; Telís, 13,652; Batwáls, 13,190; Mirásís, 12,921; Sonárs, 8947 (chiefly Hindus); Chamárs, 8076; Changars, 7139; Labánas, 6584; Fakírs, 6156; and Bhatiás, 5784. The purely Hindu castes are—Bráhmans, 36,100; Khattrís, 18,440; Aroras, 15,793; and Baniyás, 10,795.

The Christian population consists of—Europeans, 1264; Eurasians, 18; and Natives, 253: thus classified according to sect—Church of England, 923; Roman Catholic, 300; Church of Scotland, 144; Protestants, undistinguished by sect, 64; American Church, 20; Methodists, 13; unspecified and others, 71. The American Presbyterian Mission have had a station at Siálkot since 1855, and the Church

of Scotland since 1857. The Rev. T. Hunter, the first Scotch missionary, was murdered, together with his wife and child, by the mutineers a few months after the establishment of the Mission, and a handsome church has been erected at Siálkot in his memory.

Urban and Rural Population. — The District contains three towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, namely, SIALKOT TOWN (1881), 45,762; PASRUR, 8378; and DASKAH, 5525. Six other towns, with less than five thousand inhabitants, are also municipalities, namely, ZAFARWAL, 4978; NAROWAL, 4558; KILA SOBHA SINGH, 4521; JAMKI, 4157; MITRANWALI, 3730; and SANKHATRA, 2381. The total urban population thus disclosed amounts to 83,990, or 8·3 per cent. of the District population, leaving 928,158, or 91·7 per cent., for the rural population. The total municipal income of the nine towns above mentioned amounted in 1883–84 to £6981, or an average of 1s. 7¾d. per head of the municipal population. Of the 2312 towns and villages in the District, 806 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 957 between two and five hundred; 373 between five hundred and a thousand; 142 between one and two thousand; 19 between two and three thousand; 12 between three and five thousand; 2 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between twenty and fifty thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 returned the adult male population under the following seven classes:—(1) Professional class, including all Government servants, civil and military, 16,692; (2) domestic and menial class, 24,318; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 5730; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 152,932; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 83,916; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including labourers, 23,921; and (7) unspecified, 14,269.

The houses are built either of mud or of baked brick. An ordinary village is a mere collection of flat-roofed mud huts separated by narrow alleys, plastered over with a mixture of earth, chopped straw, and cow-dung; surrounded outside by rows of cow-dung (used for fuel), stacks of straw, sheds for weavers, goat pens, places for meeting, and temples for worship, huddled together in disorderly array; while every yard of available space is filled up with heaps of village refuse required for manure. Only in the larger and wealthier villages may be seen a few brick houses. Each family lives in a separate courtyard; but here all pretence of privacy is at an end. Cattle and their owners consort together, and may even be seen herding in the same apartment, while a total disregard of order or cleanliness prevails. Where there are two or three different castes in the same village, they are usually grouped into separate quarters.

Except among the upper classes, there does not seem to be much fondness for dress. A *languti* of white or blue cloth round the loins, a

scarf over the shoulder, a turban (*pagrí*) of limited dimensions, and a pair of shoes, compose the clothing of the great majority of the people, except on high days and holidays. The Rájputs are very partial to ear-rings, and to English chintzes for jackets. In tracts where thorny brushwood abounds, yellow leather trousers are worn. The Hindu Játs sometimes wear short baggy trousers. Women are given to wearing coarse jewellery and nose-rings; and a small looking-glass, attached to a ring on the finger, is part of the adornment. Nearly all the cloth is made in the village by a race of weavers maintained for the purpose; the spinning, the early manipulation, and subsequent ornamentation being the work of the females of the family.

The food of the people consists chiefly of grain and vegetables; meat is a luxury which few can afford, except on days of rejoicings, when a sheep or goat is killed and distributed. Fish is seldom eaten, even by those residing near rivers. During the spring, barley, *kangní*, *sawánk*, and *bájra* form the staples of diet; during the autumn and winter, wheat and rice. The grain, done up into a dry cake and baked, is eaten with lime or mango pickle, or with clarified butter and salt, or with a few chillies or onions and salt. To make it more palatable, a wash of vetches or country pea, called *salúná*, is sometimes added. The favourite drink is *lassí*, or buttermilk. Intoxicating liquors are not much drunk, though some Játs have a habit of taking a decoction of poppies. Two meals are ordinarily taken in the day, morning and evening; but day-labourers engaged in hard manual labour indulge in a mid-day meal, when able to afford it.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1958½ square miles, or 1,253,559 acres, as much as 902,996 acres were under cultivation in 1883–84. Of the remainder, 22,815 acres were returned as grazing lands, 124,119 acres as cultivable, and 203,629 acres as uncultivable waste. The area under each crop in 1883–84 (including lands bearing two harvests in the year) was as follows:—*Rabí* or spring harvest, 600,959 acres, namely, wheat, 374,501 acres; barley, 101,000; gram, 18,281; pulses, 35,685; tobacco, 6066; oil-seeds, 13,496; spices and drugs, 1060; vegetables, 5144; and other crops, 45,726 acres. *Kharíf* or autumn harvest, 330,179 acres, namely, rice, 67,915 acres; Indian corn, 61,880; millets, 63,051; pulses, 21,375; oil-seeds, 11,465; sugar-cane, 48,644; cotton, 38,374; vegetables, 3120; and other crops, 14,355 acres. Wheat forms the great staple of the *rabí*, and rice and millets of the *kharíf*. The best sugar-cane grows on the land watered by the Degh, and in the lowlands of the Chenáb north of Siálkot town. Millets, on the other hand, occupy the dry uplands in the centre of the District. Irrigation is widely practised, as much as 559,731 acres (or nearly two-thirds of the total cultivated area) being artificially supplied with water, according to the latest returns. In the tract known as the

Bajwát, nearly every field derives an abundant supply from a network of cuts and watercourses in connection with the Chenáb and its branches. Elsewhere, irrigation is carried on from wells, or by means of Persian wheels working upon the banks of streams. The value of manure is universally appreciated, and rotation of crops is carried out to a considerable extent.

The agricultural stock of the District in 1883-84 was returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 233,556; horses, 3252; ponies, 1231; donkeys, 6114; sheep and goats, 44,792; pigs, 521; camels, 98; ploughs, 98,395. The indigenous supply of cattle is insufficient to meet the local demand, and large numbers are bought at the cattle fairs in Amritsar, or are imported from other Districts. An annual cattle fair is held at Siálkot in September, lasting for a week, at which from 8000 to 10,000 head of cattle, chiefly buffaloes, are exhibited. The attendance is estimated at about 70,000, and in 1883 the value of the cattle sold amounted to £15,000.

The village tenures belong as a rule to the intermediate type known as *pattidárí*. Rents are paid almost equally in kind and in money. Where money rents prevail, the following are the minimum and maximum rates, varying according to the quality of the land, and the caste or social status of the tenant:—Rice lands, from 10s. to £2, 18s. an acre; wheat (irrigated), from 5s. 4d. to £2 an acre; wheat (unirrigated), from 3s. 2d. to £1, 5s. 10d. an acre; cotton, from 3s. to £1, 5s. an acre; sugar-cane, from 5s. to £3, 8s. 6d. an acre; and tobacco, from 9s. 4d. to £4, 10s. an acre. Day-labourers are seldom employed upon agricultural work except at harvest-time, when they receive their wages in grain. Skilled labourers in towns now receive from 8d. to 10d. per diem; unskilled, from 3d. to 4½d. per diem. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1884:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; barley, 39 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 11d. per cwt.; gram and *bájra*, 33½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4½d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *joár*, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt.; rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The local commerce centres in the town of Siálkot, which gathers into its *bázárs* more than half the raw produce of the District. The large markets of Lahore and Amritsar (Umritsur) afford a ready outlet for its surplus stocks, while the great rivers on either side form natural channels of communication with the lower parts of the Punjab. Grain of all kinds is exported to Múltán, Lahore, and Amritsar; sugar and molasses to Pesháwar, Kábul, and Karáchí (Kurrachee). The famous *koftgárí* or damascene work manufactured at Kotli, a large village six miles from Siálkot, is carried for sale by the artisans themselves to all parts of India. Shawl-edging, manufactured by Kashmíri settlers at Siálkot

and Kilá Sobha Singh, is sent to Amritsar; and country cloth to the hill tracts. The import trade includes—grain from Batála and the Bári Doáb uplands; salt from Pind Dádan Khán; rice, tobacco, and potatoes from Kángra, Núrpur, Murree, and Dalhousie; *ghí* from Jalálpur and the hills; timber, spices, hides, fruits, valuable shawls, and woollen fabrics from Kashmír; hemp from the submontane tracts of Jamú; and indigo from Múltán.

The indigenous manufactures of the District comprise silk, saddlery, shawl-edging, coarse chintzes, pottery, brass vessels, country cloth, cutlery, *koftgári* ware, and paper. In 1869, an undertaking was started at Siálkot under the name of the Belfast Flax Company, to encourage the growth of flax for exportation to England; but though an excellent fibre was raised in the District, the difficulty of procuring good seed, and the apathy of the peasantry (who would not adopt the new methods necessary to the production of first-class flax), caused the enterprise to prove a failure after some years' trial.

Means of Communication.—The metalled road from Wazírábád to Siálkot, and thence on to Jamú in Kashmír territory, was the principal line of communication in the District before the railway was opened. It has a length of about 35 miles in the District. Other lines communicate with Gujránwála, Amritsar, Lahore, *viâ* Eminábád, Gurdáspur, and Dalhousie. Total length of District roads (1883-84), metalled 43 miles, and unmetalled 747 miles. A branch of the Punjab Northern State Railway from Wazírábád to Siálkot, a distance of 27 miles, was opened for traffic on the 1st January 1884. The Chenáb and Rávi rivers are navigable by ordinary flat-bottomed boats of from 250 to 400 *maunds* burden, according to the season of the year. Ferries are established at all the principal crossings.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant, an Assistant Commissioner, and 3 Extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides a Cantonment Magistrate, the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. The total imperial revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £125,768; of which sum £108,598, or more than five-sixths, was derived from the land. By 1883-84, the total imperial revenue had increased to £145,531, of which £111,712 was derived from the land. Besides these imperial receipts, a small provincial and local revenue is also raised. The total number of civil and revenue judges in 1883-84 was 21; and the total number of magistrates, 20. The regular police force in the same year numbered 377 officers and men, while the cantonment and the municipalities maintained a separate constabulary of 178 men. This force is supplemented by a body of 2525 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 3080 officers and men,

being 1 policeman to every 0·6 square miles of the area and to every 328 of the population. The jail at Siálkot contained in 1883 a total of 1428 prisoners, with a daily average of 345.

Education has made a considerable start since the introduction of British rule. In 1872-73, the District contained 427 schools of all grades (besides the normal school at Siálkot town), with a roll of 8491 pupils. The total expenditure on education during that year amounted to £3275. In 1883-84, the Government schools in Siálkot District consisted of a high school, 9 middle schools, 72 primary boys' schools, and 38 primary girls' schools, attended by a total of 5416 pupils, of whom 880 are girls. The above are exclusive of 4 missionary or church schools, a convent school for Europeans and Eurasians, a municipal school, and a school for vernacular teachers. It also excludes indigenous uninspected village schools, which were returned at 604 in 1882-83, with 6831 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 9525 boys and 455 girls as under instruction, besides 19,988 males and 408 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

The District contains four printing presses,—one at the jail, and another at Hajipur belonging to the American Mission, which print in English, Urdu, Persian, and Hindi; and two native presses in Siálkot town, which print in the vernacular only. One of these publishes a vernacular newspaper, the *Rafa-i-Am*, which has a fair circulation.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Siálkot may be considered as free from excessive heat, judged by the ordinary standard of the Punjab. Even in the hottest weather, a storm in the hills produces a pleasing change; while in May and September, cool breezes from the Himálayas moderate the prevailing heat. The mean monthly temperature for a period of fifteen years ending 1881 is returned as follows:—January, 51·5° F.; February, 56·5°; March, 65·3°; April, 76·7°; May, 84·9°; June, 90·5°; July, 63·8°; August, 84·9°; September, 83·1°; October, 74·5°; November, 61·8°; and December, 52·7°. Average annual mean, 72·4° F. In 1883, the thermometer in May ranged from a maximum of 113·8° to a minimum of 64·2°, with a mean of 89·6°; in July 1883, the maximum was 114·9°, minimum 68·5°, mean 91·3°; in December 1883, the maximum was 73·1°, minimum 34·1°, mean 54·7°. The average annual rainfall for twenty-four years ending 1881 was 37·83 inches, distributed as follows:—January to May, 7·94 inches; May to September, 27·83 inches; October to December, 2·06 inches. In 1883, the total rainfall amounted to 28·9 inches, or 8·9 inches below the average.

Siálkot bears a good reputation as a healthy tract. Malarial fever, small-pox, dysentery, and pneumonia are the prevalent diseases. The itch also proves troublesome amongst the agricultural classes. The

total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1883 was 28,686, or 28 per thousand. Of these no less than 16,021, or 15·8 per thousand, were assigned to fevers. The District contains 11 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1883 to 78,754 persons, of whom 987 were in-patients. The leper asylum at Patháwáli consists of three barracks, capable of accommodating about 100 lepers. Cattle disease occurs in the form of a murrain called *waba*, which carries off a large number of beasts every year. [For further information regarding Siálkot, see the *Gazetteer of Siálkot District*, compiled under the authority of the Punjab Government (Lahore, 1883–84). Also *Report on the Revised Settlement of Siálkot District*, 1850–1860, by E. A. Prinsep, Esq.; the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government.]

Siálkot.—*Tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab; consisting of a fertile agricultural country, lying round the town of Siálkot. Area, 637 square miles; number of towns and villages, 794; houses, 44,195; families, 83,106. Population (1881) 402,825, namely, males 215,094, and females 187,731. Average density of population, 632 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans number 257,341; Hindus, 129,039; Sikhs, 14,182; Jains, 876; Christians, 1380; and Pársís, 7. Of the 794 towns and villages in the *tahsíl*, 595 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 122 between five hundred and a thousand; 75 between one thousand and five thousand; 1 between five and ten thousand; and 1 between twenty and fifty thousand. The average area under cultivation for five years ending 1881–82 is returned at 290,658 acres; the principal crops being—wheat, 96,518 acres; barley, 60,752 acres; rice, 19,208 acres; Indian corn, 23,170 acres; *joár*, 16,111 acres; gram, 5361 acres; other food-grains, 4050 acres; cotton, 17,882 acres; sugar-cane, 15,848 acres; vegetables, 3820 acres; tobacco, 1851 acres; and poppy, 142 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £25,989. The administrative staff, including the head-quarters officers of the District, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Assistant Commissioner, 3 Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 Judge of Small Cause Court, 1 *tahsíldár*, and 2 *munsifs*. These officers preside over 9 civil and 7 criminal courts; number of police circles, 4; strength of regular police, 131 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 525.

Siálkot.—Town, municipality, military cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Siálkot District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 31′ N., and long. 74° 36′ E., on the northern bank of the Aik torrent, upon the edge of the high triangular ridge which extends southward from the Jamú Hills. Distant from Lahore 72 miles north-east.

The town was founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Sál or

Shál, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* as an uncle of the Pándava princes. Restored about 65 or 70 A.D. by Sálwan or Sálivahána, otherwise called Vikramáditya, father of the great Punjab hero, Rasálu, whose capital Siálkot is also stated to have been, and whose exploits form the subject of countless Punjab legends. Towards the end of his reign, Rasálu became involved in wars with a Rájá Húdí, popularly stated to have been a Ghakkar chieftain. Being worsted in battle, Rasálu as the price of peace was forced to give his daughter in marriage to his conqueror, who, on Rasálu's death without heirs, is said to have succeeded to the rule of Siálkot. According to a further legend related to Mr. Prinsep—'After the death of Rájá Rasálu, the country is said to have fallen under the curse of Púran (brother of Rasálu, who had become a *fakír*) for 300 years, lying totally devastated from famine and incessant plunder.' The country was afterwards occupied in the 7th century A.D. by the Rájput princes of Jamú; and under the Mughal Emperors, Siálkot became the head-quarters of a fiscal district (*sarkár*). In the centre of the town stand the remains of an ancient fort, popularly believed to have been the original stronghold of Rájá Salwán, although recent excavations show that it has not in all probability existed more than 1000 years. Other similar mounds stand among the outskirts of the town. In modern days, the old fort is of historical interest for its gallant defence by the few European residents who took refuge here during the Mutiny of 1857. It is now dismantled, and the few buildings it contains are used for public purposes.

The population of Siálkot town was returned in 1881 at 33,850, and that of the cantonment at 11,912. Total population of town and cantonment, 45,762, namely, males 25,767, and females 19,995. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 28,865; Hindus, 12,751; Sikhs, 1942; Jains, 876; Christians, 1321; and Pársís, 7. Municipal income (1883–84), £5052, derived almost entirely from octroi duties.

The town is very extensive, and is steadily increasing in size and commercial importance, especially since the opening of the railway connecting it with the main line of the Punjab Northern State Railway at Wazírábád. It is fairly handsome, well built, and clean. Its main streets are wide and open, and either paved or metalled, with good drainage on both sides. The principal are the Kanak *mandi*, or grain market, running north and south; and the *bara bázár*, containing the shops of all the principal dealers in cloth, jewellery, fruits, etc. The principal buildings, shrines, etc., within the town include the following:—The ruined and dismantled fort alluded to above. A temple erected by Rájá Tej Singh has a conspicuous spire, visible from all parts of the town. The shrine of the first Sikh *gúrú*, Bába

Nának (*see* AMRITSAR DISTRICT), is the scene of a famous annual fair, largely attended by Sikhs from all parts of the District. The Darbár Báoli Sáhib, a covered well, erected by a Rájput disciple of Bába Nának, also ranks high in religious consideration among the Sikhs. A Muhammadan shrine of Imám Alí-ul-hak is a handsome building of ancient construction. The public and municipal buildings include the *tahsíl*, police station, dispensary, town hall, post-office, mission school, and four female schools, two *saráis* or native inns, rest-house for village notables and head-men visiting the city, and poorhouse, where cooked food is daily distributed. The roads from Amritsar, Lahore, Gurdáspur, and Gujránwála converge on the Aik stream, which is crossed by an ancient but well-built and substantial bridge. The railway station is situated just outside the town on the north.

The civil station is situated about half a mile north-east of the town, and contains, besides the dwellings of the civil residents, the District court-house, treasury, jail, and police lines. The cantonment lies about a mile north of the town, being built on an elevated ridge of land affording good natural drainage. The cantonment is exceedingly well laid out, and occupies an area of 5 miles in length east and west, by 3 miles north and south. Most of the roads are lined with trees. The principal public buildings in the cantonment are the post-office, telegraph office, two churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, and the general military prison for the Punjab. There are recreation grounds, racquet courts, and a well-kept public garden 27 acres in extent, provided with tennis-courts, station library, and reading-room.

As a local trade centre, Siálkot is fast rising in importance. It has several wealthy bankers and merchants, of whom the most prominent belong to the Jain tribe of Bhábrás. The distinctive industry of the place is the manufacture of paper, carried on in three hamlets forming suburbs to the city. The manufacture is said to have been introduced four centuries ago; and under the Mughal Emperors Siálkot paper was noted for its excellence, being largely used at the Delhi court. In those days, the yearly value is said to have amounted to £80,000; but under the Sikhs it declined rapidly until only twenty mills remained, turning out paper to the value of £2500 a year. At the time of the Settlement of the District (1850–1860) there were 82 mills at work, with an annual out-turn valued at £7500. At the present time the manufacture is again on the decline, owing to the exclusive use by Government of prison-made paper. A description of cloth known as *susi* is also manufactured to a considerable extent; and, next to paper, it forms the principal export. The imports are grain, salt, European piece-goods, metals, and raw sugar.

Siáltek. — Village in Cachar District, Assam; situated on the Barák river, near the boundary of Sylhet, where toll is levied on the

timber, bamboos, etc. floated down stream. Up to 1876, the river tolls at Siáltek *ghát* were farmed out to a contractor, who paid rent at the rate of £1500 a year. Since that date the toll station has been taken under direct Government management, and the receipts have rapidly declined. In 1876–77 they fell to £854, and in 1881–82 to £332. One of the largest *bázárs* in Cachar is held at Siáltek.

Siána.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SIYANA.

Siársol.—Coal-mine in Bardwán District, Bengal, being a part of the RANIGANJ coal-field. The mineral is a variety of non-coking bituminous coal, with a large portion of volatile matter and ash. The brighter portions consist of very pure coal, a sample of which gave the following results:—Volatile matter, 40 per cent.; fixed carbon, 57·5 per cent.; ash, 2·5 per cent. The composition varies, however, considerably, that of one sample being:—fixed carbon, 51·1 per cent.; volatile matter, 38·5; and ash, 10·4; while selected rich layers gave the following analysis:—fixed carbon, 57·25 per cent.; volatile matter, 41 per cent.; and ash, only 1·75 per cent. The output of coal from the Siársol mine, which is the property of a private company, amounted in 1883 to 39,911 tons, against an average of 34,460 tons in the three previous years. The mine gives employment to upwards of 500 men, women, and children.

Sibi.—District of Southern Afghánistán, ceded to the British by the terms of the treaty of Gandamak in 1881. It lies between 29° 20′ and 29° 45′ N. lat., and 67° 45′ and 68° 15′ E. long. It is the most northerly portion of the Kachi plain, from the remainder of which it is separated by a low stony ridge, broken in two places by wide gaps, through one of which the Nari river passes, and through the other the Thali torrent. Beyond this ridge lies the Mal district, which is politically connected with Sibi, though physically indistinguishable from the country under the Khán of Khelát's rule. The plain enclosed by the ridge mentioned above is divided into two parts by the Nari river: the western part, including Dádar, is politically included in the Khelát district of Kachi; while the eastern part is Sibi proper, and was formerly subordinate to the Afghán Governor of Kandahár.

Physical Aspects.—The boundaries on the west, south, and south-east are the Nari and the low ridge mentioned above. On the north and north-east the boundaries are the outer ranges of the hills occupied by the Marris and the Dumar Patháns. The only other hills in Sibi are a group of low, pebbly hillocks in the centre of the plain, on one of which stands the fort of Sibi.

The principal stream issuing from the northern hills is the Nari, the most considerable river of the Indus drainage-system south of the

Gúmal pass. Its drainage basin probably includes the plain of Thal Chotiáli and the greater part of the Kakar country. It affords a perennial supply of water as far south as Bágh. After leaving the hills it flows through a depressed alluvial plain from 2 to 3 miles wide, bounded on either side by a high bank. The centre channel of the river brings down a perennial supply of water, and other channels to the east and west are filled during flood. The alluvial plain between the high banks is called the Nari Kach, and is very seldom inundated.

The stream of next importance to the Nari is the Thali torrent, which drains a considerable portion of the Marri hills and emerges into the plain through a narrow defile called the Thali Tonkh, the whole length of which is occupied by a deep pool. The perennial supply of water flowing in and out of the pass is not great, and serves in the cold weather to fill only one canal, which waters some of the Thali lands. Heavy floods come down in the hot weather, and the water is used to irrigate the *kharíf* crops of cotton and *joár* at Thali and Mal.

Between the Nari and the Thali some minor torrents drain the outer range of hills. These are the Arand, Ghází, and Chimmar, the water of which is available for land cultivation for the *kharíf* crops.

The soil of the greater part of the plain is clay, of the same nature as that of Kachi generally. In the Nari Kach, or the depressed basin of the Nari, it is a fertile, sandy loam, covered with a dense jungle, which reproduces itself in two or three years after clearing. It is composed mostly of tamarisk, Tamarix articulata (*gazlai*) and Tamarix dioica (*gaz, lawa kar lawa*); the thorn or thand tree (*kakar, kandi*), Prosopis spicigera; the *jál* tree, Salvadora oleoides (*phir, kabbar, jál*); the *babúl*, Acacia Jacquemonti (*chighird, babhar*); and a great variety of grasses, the most valuable kinds for grazing being *gandil, sain* (*sui, garkha*), and *afdrik* or *mamhar*, Panicum antidotale (*gom gomadh*), valuable only for its small grain, eaten in time of scarcity. Saccharum Sara (*kikh*) and Cymbopogon twarancusa (*nadakh*) are also common, as well as the camel-thorn, Alhagi maurorum (*shinz jowaha*). On the central plain the jungle is not so dense as in the Kach. The ground, wherever it has lain fallow for a year or two, is covered with patches of scrubby jungle; and extensive tracts are overgrown with different salsolaceous plants (*lana* and *khál*) and camel-thorn. In some places, especially west of Khajak, there is dense jungle of Prosopis spicigera, Zizyphus nummularia, and Capparis aphylla. Salvodora persica (*tozh, zhit*) is occasionally found; and near the hills Arthanthera Vimivea (*khip, hidhishk*) and Calligonum polygonoides (*phog*). Near the village the *kikar* (Acacia arabica) and *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba) are cultivated.

Wild hog and ravine deer are abundant; and, among birds, the black

and grey partridge, the *haubara*, *kunj*, sand-grouse, quail, and pigeon are the commonest.

Agriculture.—Cultivation depends entirely on irrigation, which is mainly from the Nari river. Just below the exit of this stream from the hills, a rough embankment of stones and turf has been thrown half-way across the stream, and by this means a supply of water is turned into four canals.

The crops chiefly cultivated are wheat, barley, and mustard-seed in the cold weather, and *joár*, cotton, and *tíl* or sesamum in the hot. The amount of land under cultivation is small. The land is allowed two years' fallow between each crop, and the crops are consequently of good quality. Wheat, which is the staple crop, is extremely fine, especially in the Kach, where the soil is lighter and more sandy than on the central plain, and does not require the same amount of water. The cotton is also very fine, the bushes attaining a great size, especially near Thali. They are planted in lines at a sufficient distance apart to allow of their expanding to their full size. Much of the ground, especially in the Kach, seems well suited for the cultivation of rice; but this is not understood or practised, the reason being probably the uncertainty of the water-supply in the hot weather. Near the villages a few trees are planted, chiefly *ber* or *kunar* (Zizyphus jujuba) and *kikar* (Acacia arabica).

Population.—The population consists of Patháns, Rind Balúchís, Brahuís, Játs, and Hindus, distributed as follows:—Patháns, 6150; Balúchís, 750; Brahuís, 300; Játs, artisans, etc., 4600; and Hindus, 2100: total, 13,900.

The Patháns are the most influential. Their tribes are the Bárakzais, Pannis, and Khajaks, besides scattered families of other tribes. The Nodáni Hassanis are also commonly classed as Patháns, although they claim to be part of the Hassani tribe who formerly inhabited the Sham plain, and are now scattered about Barkhan and Thal Chotiáli; and this tribe is usually classed as Balúchí. The Silanchis of Thali also rank as Patháns. The Rind Balúchís are mostly of the Ghulám Bolak tribe. There are scattered families of the Per, Chandya, Gurchani, Lashari, Pitafi, Bughti, Gurgej, Lund, and Gishkori tribes. The Brahuís are mostly of the Gwaharamzai tribe, and live at Mal and Kurk.

Játs are found in most of the villages; and there are also a considerable number of artisans and workmen, such as washermen, potters, barbers, carpenters, blacksmiths, butchers, etc. Hindu shopkeepers are also numerous.

The Bárakzai family hold the foremost rank in Sibi. The chief of the Pannis is a Bárakzai, and under the Afghán Government the office of Naib was always held by him.

The remainder of the Pannis are divided into five sections—the Marghazanis, Saphis, Kurks, and Mizris living in Kurk, and the Dahpals living in Sibi.

The Khajaks are Patháns of the Kakar tribe; they live entirely in the town of Khajak, and are divided into eight sections. They are but little under the control of the hereditary chief. The Khajaks used to be at perpetual feud with the Bárakzais and Pannis; but peace has been made since the occupation of the country by the British Government.

The Nodáni Hassanis number about 264, and are scattered about in Kurk, Khajak, Sibi, and their original village of Gulu Shahr, which they recently abandoned.

The Silanchis are a tribe of Patháns living in Thali. They number 660.

The other Patháns, besides those mentioned above, are of the following tribes:—Abdullá, Khaili, Piaráni, Jaduni, Sodi, Pirang, Dahar, and Davi. They number altogether about 336 souls.

The Gwaharamzai tribe of Brahuís are settled at Mal and Kurk. They number about 216 in the former place, and 84 in the latter.

The Rind Balúchís, comprising the Ghulám Bolaks and Pers, occupy the village of Bukhru or Ghulám Bolak. They number about 480. The other Balúchís scattered about Kurk, Sibi, and Thali are of the Gurchani, Lashari, Pitafi, Bughti, Chandya, Gurgej, Lund, and Gishkori tribes; they number 264.

The Játs are found in all the villages except Ghulám Bolak, and are generally tenants of the Pathán proprietors. The most considerable tribes are the Baghwáns (Arains), Muchis, and Hambis. The trading classes, artisans, and shopkeepers are found mostly in Kurk, Khajak, and Sibi.

The seven inhabited towns or villages are—Sibi, Kurk, Khajak, Gulu Shahr, Ghulám Bolak or Bakrí, Thali, and Mal. The ruins of numerous deserted villages indicate that the population of the country was formerly much greater than at present. The languages spoken are Pushtu, Balúchí, Sindhí, and Brahuí. Sindhí and Balúchí are commonly understood throughout the country.

Trade, etc.—The local industries are unimportant. Coarse cloth is woven for home consumption. There is a considerable manufacture of barilla or *sajji*, which is of superior quality, as only the *khal* bush (which is very plentiful) is used, and the other kinds of salsolaceous plants are not mixed with it, as is often done elsewhere.

Trade is carried on both with Sind and Khorasán. The articles imported from Khorasán are rice, *múg*, *dál*, goats' hair-thread (for ropes), *namda* or felt, wool, almonds, and *boris* or bags for carrying goods. From Sind come sugar, *gur*, sweetmeats, spices, salt, and cloth of all sorts. The exports to Sind include part of the imports from

Khorasán. The local products exported are wool, *ghí*, barilla or *sajji*, and wheat, barley, and *joár*.

History.—Of the early history of Sibi, but little is known. Tradition represents it as having been at one time the centre of a considerable kingdom which embraced the whole of the hill country to the north, and which still bears the name of Sewistán. The communications with Thal Chotiáli are easy, and the route through Sibi to that part of Afghánistán was a well-known one till closed by the depredations of the Marris.

The earliest historical mention of Sibi occurs in Bábar's autobiography (Leydn's *Bábar*, ed. 1826, p. 164). Bábar was marching from the Indus to Chotiáli, probably *viâ* the Sakhi Sarwar pass. He passed through the country of Rudi, which seems to be the Barkhan valley, and there found Fazil Gokaltash, the Darogah of Sibi, who had come out with 20 men to reconnoitre. Fazil Gokaltash was in the service of Sháh Beg Arghan. This was in A.H. 911 (A.D. 1505). Sháh Beg was son of Zulnun Beg, Governor of Kandahár, under the Khorasán kings, and ultimately (in A.H. 928, A.D. 1521) conquered the whole of Sind, and established the Arghan dynasty there (Briggs' *Ferishta*, ed. 1829, vol. iv. p. 432). Bábar's conquests do not seem to have extended so far south as Sibi, which probably remained in the hands of the Arghans.

To this period belongs the legendary hero of the Balúchís, Mír Chakar, who is said to have founded the fort of Sibi. He appears to be identical with Mír Chakar Rind, who is mentioned by Ferishta as having come to Múltán and obtained a *jágír* at Uchh in A.D. 1520 (Briggs' *Ferishta*, vol. iv. p. 396). The Balúchís seem to have been very powerful at Múltán, and were able to afford protection to Daulat Khán Lodí when he fled from Ibráhím Khán in A.D. 1524 (Briggs' *Ferishta*, vol. ii. p. 38).

The legends represent Mír Chakar to have been at perpetual war with Humáyún (Human Chughatta), and this may have a historical foundation in the attacks made on Humáyún by Balúchís on his flight towards Kandahár (Erskine's *Bábar* and *Humáyún*).

After the conquest of Sind by the Mughals, Sibi must have formed part of the Mughal Empire, and so continued till the rise of the Duráni kingdom under Ahmad Sháh. The settlement in Sibi of the Khajaks, Bárakzais, Pannis, and other Patháns had probably taken place before this, and the country remained attached to the power holding Kandahár. As the Duráni kingdom broke up, Sibi passed with the rest of Afghánistán under the rule of the Bárakzai Sirdárs, the chief of the Bárakzais acting as Naib under the rulers of Kandahár. From 1839 to 1842, Sibi was occupied by the British in the name of Sháh Shuja. The old fort was put into repair and used as a commissariat depôt.

Granaries were built, which are still in existence, and are now undergoing repairs. The revenue was collected in kind at one-third of the gross produce. The Khajaks refused to pay on one occasion, and a force was sent against them, which destroyed their town. After their submission, they were allowed to pay only one-fifth of the gross produce as revenue, in order to enable them to repair their houses.

In 1843, Sibi came again under Bárakzai rule, Khán Díl Khán and Sádik Muhammad Khán being Sirdárs of Kandahár. They continued to collect the revenue in kind till 1846–47, when the cash assessment, which has prevailed till the present day, was introduced. The country was for long in a distracted condition owing to internal dissensions and the ravages of the Marris.

Sibi is one of the Afghán districts assigned to the British Government by the treaty of Gandamak. Since then its condition has been uneventful and prosperous. Its administration is carried on under the control of the Governor-General's Agent in Balúchistán. It forms part of the charge of the Political Agent of Thal Chotiáli, in subordination to whom there are a native Assistant Agent, a *tahsíldár*, and a *munsif*. No troops are regularly stationed in the district, but there are police and tribal levies.

Under Afghán rule, the revenue of the district was represented by a fixed payment of £1000, which was remitted to the Amír's treasury by the chief of the Bárakzais. Under British administration, the revenue is collected in kind at uniform rates of one-fifth of the gross produce in the *rabí* crop, and one-sixth in the *kharíf*, amounting in value to £11,215 in 1884–85.

The town of Sibi has developed very largely of late, and is now administered on municipal principles. It is a station on the newly opened Sind-Pishín Railway, the head-quarters of the Political Agent, and in the cold weather of the Agent to the Governor-General in Balúchistán.

Sibi.—Village with religious fair in Túmkúr District, Mysore State. —*See* SHIBI.

Sibpur (*Shibpur*).—Suburb of Howrah town, Húglí District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 34′ N., and long. 88° 16′ E., opposite Fort William. The place has grown since the beginning of this century from a small village into a flourishing town; inhabited chiefly by Government and other clerks, and by labourers employed on the various mills and foundries, and on the East Indian Railway works. On the river-side are the Albion works, consisting of a flour-mill and a distillery. To the south of Sibpur are the Royal Botanical Gardens, one of the finest of their kind in the world. A little above the gardens, an important technical school of industry — the Sibpur Engineering College—occupies the buildings and premises of the old 'Bishops

College,' now transferred to Calcutta. Sibpur is a permanent mart for District produce; bricks are largely made and exported to Calcutta.

Sibságar (*Seebsaugor*).—A British District in the upper valley of Assam, lying between 26° 19′ and 27° 16′ N. lat., and between 93° 21′ and 95° 25′ E. long. Area, 2855 square miles. Population (as ascertained by the Census of 1881), 370,274 souls. Bounded on the north and east by Lakhimpur District, the Brahmaputra marking the boundary for the greater part of the distance; on the south by the Nágá Hills District; and on the west by Nowgong District. The administrative head-quarters are at SIBSAGAR TOWN, situated about 11 miles inland from the south bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the appearance of a level plain, much overgrown with grass and jungle, and intersected by numerous tributaries of the Brahmaputra. Along the bank of the great river and its branches, the land lies very low, and is exposed to annual inundation; in the interior, the country rises towards the Nágá Hills in the background, and the cane-brakes and grassy swamps of the valley give place to jungles of heavy timber. The District is divided by the little stream of the Disái into two tracts, which differ in soil and general appearance. East of the Disái the surface is very flat, and the soil consists of a heavy loam of a whitish colour, which is well adapted for rice cultivation. The general level is only broken by the long lines of embankments which were raised by the Aham kings, to serve both as roadways and as a protection against floods. West of the Disái, though the surface soil is of the same character, the general aspect is diversified by the protrusion of the subsoil. The latter is a stiff clay, abounding in iron nodules, and furrowed by frequent ravines and watercourses, which divide the cultivable fields into innumerable small sunken patches, locally known as *holás*.

In the inner part of the District towards the hills, the country is clothed in dense forest with an underwood of thorny creepers, which swarm with leeches when the rains begin to set in. This latter region is generally preferred for tea cultivation, as high forest glades are considered more suitable for the tea-plant than grass land. Where the land still lies waste in the tract in which the husbandmen cultivate rice, it is overgrown with tall grass from 15 to 20 feet high, amid which are isolated patches of cultivation.

There are no mountains within the limits of the District. The chief river is the Brahmaputra, forming the continuous northern boundary, which is navigable all the year through by steamers and large native boats. Its principal tributaries, beginning from the north-east, are the Dihing, which for part of its course divides Sibságar from Lakhimpur District; the Disang, Dikhu, Thanzí, Disái, Kakadungá, and the Dhaneswarí or Dhansirí, which all flow in a northerly direction from

the Nágá Hills. The most signal example of alluvion in the whole Province is afforded by the Májuli *char*, included within the District of Sibságar. This island is included between the present stream of the Brahmaputra, which forms its southern boundary, and the old bed which forms its northern. The latter is now known as the Lohit river, and derives most of its water from the great affluent, the Subansirí, which brings down from the north much of the silt of which the island is formed. The soil is a rich alluvium suitable for every kind of crop. It contains an area of about 400 square miles, almost entirely overgrown with grass and jungle. The fisheries of the District, which are Government property, yield an annual revenue of about £2300 a year. There are no lakes, canals, or artificial watercourses in Sibságar; but there are many extensive marshy wastes, in which rattans and canes grow wild, and long-stemmed varieties of rice are cultivated.

Wild beasts of all kind abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, bears, buffaloes, and deer. In 1882-83, £800 was paid to Government for the privilege of capturing wild elephants.

Among the trees indigenous to the forests of Sibságar, and producing valuable timber, are the *súm* (Artocarpus Chaplasha), *gamarí* (Gmelina arborea), *pomá* (Cedrela Toona), and some species of Lagerstrœmia and Dillenia. All these trees grow to a great height, and throw out numerous branches. Their wood is used for many purposes, and the most durable canoes are made from it. Next in importance to these timber trees are the *káthál* (Artocarpus integrifolia), *uriam* (Bischoffia javanica), *kálá jám* (Syzygium Jambolana), *titli* (Tamarindus indica), some specimens of *takrá* (Bauhinia) and *nahor* (Mesua ferrea). Of all the plants of the District, the bamboo is the most useful. The natives have several specific names for the different varieties of the bamboo; such as *jánti-báns*, *bhálukà-báns*, *mákál-báns*, *bazal-báns*, etc. The trees used for rearing silkworms on are the *adakur* (Tetranthera quadrifolia), *súm* (Machilus odoratissima), *pilá-champá* (Michelia pulneyensis), and *eriá* (Ricinus communis). Rattans grow wild throughout the waste lands, so luxuriantly as to form an almost impenetrable jungle. Innumerable varieties of creepers are found. The jungle products consist of caoutchouc, lac, beeswax, and various fibres and dyes. Ivory is also exported. The Málo Kaliáni Diha and Arali Tál are large patches of grazing ground, used during the winter months as pasturage for thousands of buffaloes and cows, but covered with water during the rains. The mineral wealth of the District is said to comprise coal, iron, petroleum, and salt, but none of these have been profitably worked. A little gold dust is washed in several of the hill streams. Some hot sulphur springs are situated near the banks of the Dhaneswarí, and its tributary the Nambar; but they lie beyond the border in the Nágá Hills District.

History.—Sibságar District first rose into prominence as the head-quarters of the Aham dynasty, which ruled Assam for about 400 years before the British annexation. Prior to the advent of the Ahams, the dominant race was the Chutiás, of a kindred origin to the Ahams, who only subjugated the Chutiás after a fierce contest. At the present day, these two tribes form nearly one-half of the total population. The Ahams, a people of Shan origin, are said to have first made their appearance in Upper Assam in the 14th century, after the downfall of the legendary Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. They gradually spread down the valley of the Brahmaputra, until in the 17th century they were able to hold their own at Gauhátí against repeated invasions of the Mughals. It does not appear that they brought any religion with them from their native hills; but in course of years they fell under the influence of Hinduism, and at the same time lost the virtues of military and civil administration, by means of which they had founded their empire. At last, in order to protect themselves against internal dissensions, they were compelled to call in the assistance of the Burmese, who tyrannized over the country with great severity, until they were in their turn driven out by the British in 1823.

The original capital of the Ahams was at GARHGAON in this District, on the Dikhu river, a short distance south-east of Sibságar town, where numerous ruins are still to be seen. The city and its suburbs appear to have extended over many square miles; and the royal palace itself was surrounded by a brick wall, about 2 miles in circumference. It has been noticed that one of the many gateways is built of large blocks of stone bearing marks of iron crampings, which show traces that they once belonged to a far more ancient edifice—thus attesting the primitive Hindu traditions of Kámrúp as told in the *Mahábhárata.* The whole is now overgrown with dense jungle; and the natural course of decay has been hastened by the hand of man, for the old bricks are found serviceable on the tea-gardens of the present day.

The second Aham capital was at RANGPUR, immediately to the south of Sibságar town, which is said to have been founded in 1698 by Rájá Rudra Singh, the first Aham prince who submitted himself to the Bráhmans. The ruins of his palace, and a temple which he built at Jaiságar, still exist amid the deep jungle. To the eldest son of this monarch is assigned the excavation of the great tank, 114 acres in area, around which has been built the modern station of Sibságar. Rangpur continued as the royal residence until 1784, when the Aham kingdom began to be dismembered. The Rájá, named Gaurináth, fled before his rebellious subjects, who had advanced against him from the east. He first stopped at Jorhát on the Disái river, in the centre of Sibságar District, but was ultimately compelled to retire to Gauhátí.

With British assistance, he was enabled to return to Jorhát, where he died in 1793.

Apart from the ruins of successive capitals, the Ahams have left permanent traces of their power in the great lines of embankment running through the country, which are locally known as *ális*. These were constructed by a system of forced labour, and served both as roads and as protections against river floods. The entire method of Aham administration was based upon personal servitude. The country was parcelled out into executive Districts, each of which was under the control of a taskmaster; no money revenue was demanded, but compulsory service was exacted from every individual among the subject races as his contribution to the needs of the State. The recollection of this organized slavery still lives in the minds of the people. At the present day, it is found almost impossible to obtain labourers to work on the roads, or other Government undertakings. The peasantry are willing to take employment on the tea-gardens, when not occupied on their own little plots of rice; but to work for Government is held to involve indelible disgrace. Hence it is that the great works of the Aham period have been suffered to fall into disrepair, and the incursions of the rivers have thrown much good land out of cultivation.

When the British expelled the Burmese from Assam in 1823, the Government was indisposed to undertake the responsibilities of administration beyond what seemed absolutely necessary. A military outpost was stationed at Sadiyá, at the extreme head of the Brahmaputra valley, but the civil government by European officials was not extended farther east than the confines of Nowgong. The tract that now forms Sibságar District, together with the southern portion of Lakhimpur, was handed over to a native ruler, Rájá Purandhar Singh, who was guaranteed the secure exercise of his authority on condition of paying a tribute of £5000 a year. This unsatisfactory arrangement produced the results which might have been anticipated. The Rájá, protected by the British name from the consequences of his misrule, indulged himself in the most wanton oppressions upon his helpless subjects, and rendered their condition even more miserable than it had been under the Burmese invaders. It is on record that the country became so depopulated that it was unable to furnish the British tribute. Under these circumstances it was found necessary in 1838 to dispossess Purandhar Singh, and to place Sibságar under the direct management of an English officer. The early reports of those days are confined to complaints of the extreme misery to which the country was reduced. The tea industry, however, has now brought back prosperity; and at the present time the Sibságar peasants rank among the most contented and wealthy in Assam.

Population.—Mr. Robinson, in his *Descriptive Account of Assam* (1840), roughly estimated the population of Sibságar District, which then included great part of Lakhimpur, at 200,000 souls. Another estimate in 1853 gave a total of 211,477. The first regular Census was taken in 1871; and the enumeration, instead of being taken in a single night as in Bengal, was prolonged over the two months of November and December. The results disclosed a total of 296,589 persons, on an area corresponding to the present District. The Census of 1881 was synchronous, and was, as elsewhere throughout British India, effected on the night of the 17th February. It returned a total population of 370,274, showing an increase of 73,685, or 24·83 per cent., for the nine years between 1872 and 1881. The natural increase of births over deaths accounts for about half this increase, the remainder being made up by immigration from Bengal.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 2855 square miles, with 1 town and 1982 villages, and 63,576 houses. Population, 370,274, namely, males 195,194, and females 175,080; proportion of males, 52·7 per cent. Average density of population, 129·7 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, ·62; persons per town or village, 187; houses per square mile, 22·3; persons per house, 5·8. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 77,164, and girls 73,849; total children, 151,013, or 40·8 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 118,030, and females 101,231; total adults, 219,261, or 59·2 per cent.

The ethnical division of the people shows—Europeans, 168; Eurasians, 139; aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes and castes, 215,224; Hindus, 139,075; Muhammadans, 15,665; and Chinese, 3. The chief feature in this classification is the large proportion of semi-Hinduized aborigines, as compared with the rest of Assam. On the one hand, the hill tribes of the northern Himálayas and of the eastern Burmese Mountains are poorly represented; while, on the other, the castes of Bengalí Hindus have not penetrated so far east. The great bulk of the population are pure Assamese, more or less converted to Hinduism. The once dominant race of Ahams, numbering 117,872, still supplies nearly one-third of the total population. Though they have now sunk to the level of common cultivators, they retain many of their ancient habits and institutions. Some of them eat beef and pork, and also bury instead of burning their dead. Next in number come the Chutiás (29,952), who have already been referred to as of the same original stock as the Ahams, and their predecessors in the government of the upper valley of the Brahmaputra. The Kochs (24,248) are members of a tribe whose present head-quarters are in the Bengal State of Kuch Behar, but who ruled at one time over the

greater part of Assam, before the arrival of the Ahams. The Doms (22,867) are a curious race, who lay claim in Assam to high-caste purity, but reject the ministrations of Bráhmans. Bhumijs number 18,492. The aborigines proper include—the Cacharís (19,753), who are largely employed on tea-gardens; Mírís from North Lakhimpur (10,836); Míkirs (1403); Nágás (1405); Shans (275); Lalungs (319); Mechs (228); Gáros (185); Manipurís (50); besides a sprinkling of Kols, Uráons, and Santáls, who are imported labourers from Chutiá Nágpur.

Among the Hindus proper, Bráhmans number 11,607, being especially numerous for an Assam District; Rájputs, 1428; Káyasths, 3109; and Jain traders, from the north-west of India, 997. The most numerous caste in the District is the Kalitá (33,812), who supplied the priesthood for the Kochs, Doms, and Ahams before the introduction of Bráhmanism. The Kalitás now rank as pure Súdras, on a level with the Káyasths, and are generally engaged in agriculture or Government service. Other Hindu castes include the following:—Keut or Kewat, 17,736; Katání, 5404; Munda or Murah, 3420; Kurmí, 3314; Boriá, 2791; Nat, 1963; Ganak, 1531; Harí, 1374; Kumbhár, 1296; Baurí, 1207; Tántí, 1198; Goálá, 920; Ghátwál, 732; Nápit, 718; and Kahár, 436.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 339,663, or 91·8 per cent.; Musalmáns, 15,665, or 4·2 per cent.; Christians, 804 (including 462 native converts); Buddhists, 275; Jains, 37; Brahmo, 1; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 13,829. There are five principal Hindu *sástrás* or religious institutions of a monastic character, each presided over by its own high priest or *gosáin;* and 83 minor *sástrás.* The *gosáins* have a large number of followers, and hold much revenue-free land, both in this and the other Assam Valley Districts. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by a few followers, who are all immigrants from Bengal. The Muhammadans of Sibságar are said to be descended partly from artisans introduced by an early Aham Rájá, and partly from soldiers left by the invading Mughal armies. Many of them have joined the Faráizí or reformed sect, but they are not actively fanatical, and have ceased to make proselytes. The native Christians are under the care of a branch of the American Baptist Mission, which has been established in Sibságar since 1840. The Society is represented by two missionaries, one of whom usually resides in a village on the lower slopes of the Nágá Hills, where he has charge of a considerable number of converts.

Urban and Rural Population.—The population of the District is entirely rural, being employed either on rice cultivation or the tea-gardens. They evince no tendency to gather into towns or seats of

commerce, and very few natives of Sibságar depend upon trade as a means of livelihood. Some few petty traders buy small quantities of goods from the Márwárí merchants who visit the District, and retail them in the village shops; but these have, almost without exception, their little patches of arable land which they cultivate themselves, and from which their household wants are supplied. The only place with a population of more than 5000 is SIBSAGAR TOWN, which contains (1881) 5868 inhabitants. It is situated about 9 miles inland from the south bank of the Brahmaputra, and, besides the houses of the civil officials, possesses a large *bázár*, in which a brisk business is conducted during the cold season with the neighbouring hill tribes. JORHAT, on the Disái river in the centre of the District (population 1978), is the home of several Márwárí and Muhammadan traders, who supply the wants of the labourers on the tea-gardens. GOLAGHAT, on the Dhaneswarí (population 1754), is the only seat of river traffic in the District, being accessible to steamers from May to November. It is now a fairly large station, with a good *bázár*, treasury, telegraph office, and *dák* bungalow; it is also the seat of an Assistant Commissioner. NAZIRA, on the Dikhu, about 9 miles from Sibságar by road, is the head-quarters of the Assam Tea Company, containing a large *bázár*, several good European houses, steam mill, and store for English goods. The ruins of GARHGAON and RANGPUR have been already referred to.

Of the 1983 villages or clusters of hamlets, 1548 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 413 between two and five hundred; 19 between five hundred and a thousand; and only 3 more than one thousand.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 returned the male population of Sibságar District under the following six main headings:—(1) Official and professional class, 1337; (2) domestic class, 666; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3242; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 119,608; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 1681; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 68,660.

Material Condition of the People.—The inhabitants of the District are described as a contented and happy people, having but few wants, and those very easily supplied, as rice is almost the only article grown for food, the rest being obtainable from the jungles and streams. They still live, however, in the same primitive manner as their forefathers; their agricultural implements and cattle, their food and clothing, being all exactly as they were fifty years ago. A marked indication of the prosperity of the people is the great difficulty experienced in obtaining labour, even at high rates of wages. If there is any exception to the general prosperity, it is amongst a few families of the better class, the members of which are, or consider themselves to be, above manual

labour. They find it getting more and more difficult to get their holdings cultivated for them, and to keep up the social position they formerly enjoyed.

The shopkeeping class generally live in somewhat substantial buildings, consisting of two or more rooms under a single roof; while the dwelling of a common husbandman usually consists of two or three small detached huts, each containing from two to four rooms, and constructed of wood, bamboo, grass, and reeds. These huts are very low, damp, ill-ventilated, and built so close to one another as to render them almost inaccessible to light and air. Each hut seldom has more than one small door, just large enough to admit one man at a time, and has no windows at all. The houses are grouped together into villages, without any regard to arrangement or sanitary considerations. They are generally surrounded with clumps of bamboos, plantain, betel-nut, and *súm* trees, and, viewed from a distance, present a very picturesque aspect. Small quantities of tobacco, mustard, and sugar-cane are cultivated in the immediate vicinity of the villages, each family raising sufficient to supply its own household wants.

The ordinary food of the people consists of rice, pulses, fish, and vegetables. The use of flesh as an article of food is very rare. The vegetables used by all classes of natives consist chiefly of leaves and tender stems, generically called *ság*. Other vegetables, such as potatoes, carrots, cabbages, turnips, onions, etc., are grown to a small extent, for sale to the European residents. Milk is very little used by the mass of the people, though *dahi* (butter-milk) is much consumed by the higher classes. The lower classes seldom use oil; and instead of salt, they use potash procured by burning plantain leaves. Clarified butter and sugar are only consumed by the comparatively wealthy. Both shopkeepers and cultivators raise nearly every article of food they require for domestic consumption.

Agriculture, etc. — The staple crop throughout the District is rice, which furnishes two great harvests in the year. The *sálí*, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, is sown on low lands about June, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in November. Its finer varieties are sometimes comprised under the generic term of *láhí*. The *áhu* or *áus* is sown on high lands about March, and reaped in July, leaving the field ready for a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds. A third crop of rice, called *báo*, is grown on the borders of marshes or the banks of rivers, being sown about April, and reaped in November. This is a long-stemmed variety, and can keep pace in its growth with the rise of flood water. The other crops include Indian corn, several varieties of pulses, mustard grown as an oil-seed, sugar-cane, *pán* or betel-leaf, and cotton and indigo raised only by the hill tribe of Mírís. The *súm* tree (Machilus odoratissima) is an important object of attention

in the neighbourhood of villages, for the sake of the silkworm that feeds on its leaves.

According to the most recent statistics, the area under cultivation in 1883-84 was 327,221 acres, or less than one-fifth of the total area of the District, though the greater part of the remainder is capable of tillage. Crop area in 1883-84—Rice, 211,332 acres; other food-grains, including pulses, 5895 acres; oil-seeds, 10,157 acres; sugar-cane, 4311 acres; tea, 40,532 acres; other crops, 62,869 acres; total, 335,096 acres, of which 7875 acres produced two crops in the year. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is only used for sugar-cane and other special crops. Irrigation is adopted in the case of *sálí* rice, when water can be easily obtained from natural watercourses. It is not customary to allow land to lie fallow. Spare land abounds on all sides, and the present tenures are favourable to the cultivator. As throughout the rest of Assam, the State is the general landlord, but the cultivators, either by contract or status, possess a heritable and transferable right in all land cultivated permanently. Under native rule, the main source of revenue was a sort of capitation tax, raised at the rate of 4s. on each plough, and 2s. on each hoe. The first land settlement, commenced in 1839, assessed the revenue at 1s. 6d. an acre on *rupit* or moist lands, on which *sálí* rice is grown, and 9d. an acre on all other lands. In 1844 these rates were raised respectively to 1s. 10d. and 1s. 4d. At the present time, *bastú* or homestead land pays 6s. an acre; *rupit*, 3s. 9d. an acre; and *faringháti*, on which *áus* rice and other crops are grown, 3s. an acre. The average out-turn of paddy from an acre of rice land is estimated to amount to about 14 cwts., worth about £2. This, after husking, would give about 9 cwts. of rice, locally worth £3, 6s.

Spare Land.—There is a very large quantity of spare land in Sibságar, and the present tenures are undoubtedly favourable to the cultivator. Waste lands for the extension of tea cultivation have been granted at very favourable rates. Those granted to the Assam Company were given rent-free for twenty years; after the expiration of that term, a rent is payable of 1s. 2d. per acre for three years; and thereafter 2s. 3d. per acre for a further period of twenty-two years. All the ordinary arable lands in the District are held by the cultivators on a lease direct from Government.

Landless Labouring Classes.—There appears to be no tendency towards the growth of a separate class of day-labourers in the District, neither renting nor possessing land of their own. On the contrary, the class who used formerly to cultivate the lands of others seems to be decreasing in numbers, and the want of labour is seriously felt. Men who cultivate the fields of others are termed *bandás*, and generally receive in exchange for their labour merely their food and clothing, with a small

allowance of money. The Assamese form a comparatively small part of the labourers employed in the tea-gardens, coolies being imported from Bengal for this purpose. Those natives of the District who do seek employment on the tea plantations generally have small farms of their own, on which they cultivate sufficient for their own household wants. The Cacharís furnish a considerable proportion of the labour on the tea-gardens. Women and children are not largely employed in the fields except at the sowing and harvesting seasons.

The rate of wages for ordinary unskilled labour is said to have doubled within the past twenty years, owing to the extension of tea cultivation; and the demand for skilled labour has risen in a still greater proportion. Indeed, labour of all kinds requires to be imported from Bengal. A common day-labourer is procurable with difficulty at 6d. a day. Male coolies on the tea-gardens are engaged at 10s. a month, and women at 8s.; but these rates can be almost doubled by taking taskwork. A second-rate blacksmith or carpenter receives £3 or £4 a month, and a bricklayer £1, 12s. The prices of food-grains have risen in like proportion. The following are the rates for 1872, which were somewhat above the average of recent years:—Common rice, 7s. 2d. per cwt.; pulses, from 9s. 9d. to 13s. per cwt.; oil, £2, 6s. per cwt.; salt, 10s. 8d. per cwt. In 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, the price of common rice rose to 14s. per cwt.

Sibságar District is not especially exposed to either of the calamities of flood or drought. The valley of the Brahmaputra is subject to annual inundation, owing to the old embankments having been allowed to fall into a bad state of repair; but it is not known that the general harvest of the District has ever been affected thereby. Partial drought is sometimes caused by deficiency of local rainfall. The season of 1857 is still remembered by the people as having resulted in a scarcity from this cause, which raised the price of common unhusked rice to 7s. 6d. per cwt. The people mainly depend for their food supply on the *sálí* rice crop; and if this were to fail, it would be difficult to supply its place either from the other crops or by importation.

Manufactures, etc.—The local industries are limited to the weaving of silk and cotton cloth, the making of domestic utensils from brass and bell metal, and a coarse description of pottery. The silk cloth is woven of various degrees of fineness, and is divided into four classes:—*mejánkurí*, the finest of all from the cocoons of a worm fed on the *adákurí* tree; *pát*, from the Chinese silkworm fed on the mulberry; *mugá*, the best known, from a worm fed on the *súm* tree; and *eriá*, which is very coarse, from a worm fed on the castor-oil plant. The finest raw silk has been sold for as much as £1, 16s. per pound; but the manufacture has greatly fallen off in recent years, owing to the

competition of cotton piece-goods imported from Europe. The braziers are almost entirely supported by a system of advances made by Márwárí capitalists, at the rate of 6d. per pound for brass, and 1s. per pound for bell metal.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District, also, is mainly confined to the Márwárís. The principal seats of commerce are Jorhát, Golaghát, and Sibságar town. The two latter places are the resort of large numbers of Nágás during the cold season, who bring down raw cotton and vegetables to barter for salt, fish, poultry, and cattle. Cotton is commonly exchanged for half its weight of salt. There are no large annual fairs, similar to those held in Lower Assam. The principal exports from the District are tea, silk, mustard seed, cotton, and jungle products; the imports are salt, oil, opium, piece-goods, and miscellaneous hardware.

Tea.—The cultivation and manufacture of tea is largely carried on by European capital and under European supervision; and in this industry Sibságar ranks as the first District in Assam Proper, being only surpassed in the whole of India by Cachar District in the Surmá valley. The Assam Tea Company, which commenced its operations in Lakhimpur, had opened fifteen factories in Sibságar by 1852, with 2500 acres under cultivation, and an out-turn of 267,000 lbs. Soon after that date, many private gardens were taken up by Europeans and natives; and in 1869, after the recovery from the panic caused by excessive speculation, there were 110 gardens in cultivation, managed by 53 European and 233 native assistants, and employing a monthly average of 13,399 imported and 790 local labourers. The statistics for 1874 show 22,573 acres under cultivation, out of a total of 108,050 acres taken up, mostly in fee-simple; and an out-turn of 4,976,419 lbs. of tea, being an increase of 554,898 lbs. on the previous year. By 1883–84, the area under plant had increased to 40,532 acres, and the estimated out-turn (believed however to be excessive) to 12½ million lbs., the average out-turn under mature plant being 335 lbs. per acre.

The chief means of communication in the District are afforded by the Brahmaputra and Dhaneswarí rivers, both navigable by steamers, but the latter only during the rains. The roads all follow the lines of the *álís* or old embankments constructed by forced labour under the Aham kings. The Trunk Road, maintained by the Public Works Department, runs through the entire length of the District for a course of 133 miles. The aggregate length of the District roads in 1883 was returned at 420 miles, of which 305 miles were classed as important. Wheeled conveyances are now in general use, most of the roads having been bridged at river crossings.

Administration.—The District administrative staff ordinarily consists of a Deputy Commissioner, two Assistant and four Extra-Assistant Com-

missioners, District Engineer with two Assistants, Civil Surgeon, and Superintendent of Police. In 1870–71, the total revenue of Sibságar District amounted to £93,853, of which the land-tax contributed £43,976, or 47 per cent., and *ábkárí* or excise £42,090, or 46 per cent.; the expenditure was £35,194, or about two-fifths of the revenue, and the item of 'cost and conveyance of opium' absorbed £13,842, which is properly a debit against the revenue from excise. By 1882 the revenue had increased to £125,645, while the expenditure was £27,994. As throughout the rest of Assam, owing to the circumstance that an assessment is made annually with the cultivators, the land-tax is a very elastic source of revenue, having increased from £7013 in 1840 to £11,120 in 1850, and £48,758 in 1875. In 1883 there were 3 covenanted European officers stationed in the District, and 10 magisterial and 7 civil and revenue courts open. The regular and municipal police force consisted of 335 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £6188; showing 1 policeman to every 8·5 square miles of area, or to every 1106 of the population, and an average cost of £2, 3s. 4d. per square mile and 4d. per head of population. There is no village watch or rural police in the District. In the same year, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 458, or 1 to every 388 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. There is 1 jail at Sibságar town, and Sub-divisional lock-ups at Golághát and Jorhát. In 1883, the daily average number of prisoners was 91·7, of whom 2·2 were females; the labouring convicts numbered 83·7.

As is the case in Assam generally, education until recently had made but little progress among the people. In 1856, the number of schools in the District was only 12, attended by 794 pupils. The figures for 1860 show a positive decrease; but by 1870 the number of schools had risen to 29, and the pupils to 1084. The reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*, have produced scanty effect in this part of the country. In 1873, there were 39 schools under inspection, attended by 1440 pupils. By 1883, the number of State aided and inspected schools had increased to 159, attended on the 31st March 1884 by 5767 pupils. Indigenous vernacular unaided schools numbered 11, with 177 pupils. The Census Report of 1881 returned 2828 boys and 79 girls as under instruction, besides 6765 males and 171 females able to read and write but not under instruction. The chief educational establishments are the Government English school at Sibságar town, attended on 31st March 1884 by 224 pupils; the Jorhát high school, with 255 pupils; the Assam Company's school at Nazirá, with 137 pupils; and the normal school, with 13 pupils.

For administrative purposes, the District is divided into the 3 Sub-

divisions of Sibságar, Jorhát, and Golághát, and into 4 *thánás* or police circles, namely, Sibságar, Bartola, Jorhát, and Golághát, with outpost stations at Selung, Kamlabari, and Dhansirimukh. The number of *mauzás* or revenue collections of villages, each under a *mauzádár* or revenue official, is 65. The only municipality in the District is Sibságar town.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sibságar, like that of the rest of the Assam valley, is comparatively mild and temperate. Scarcely a single month passes without some rain, but the year may be roughly divided into two seasons—the dry and cold season, extending from October to the end of April, and the hot and rainy season, occupying the remainder of the year. Dense fogs prevail in the early mornings from November to February. The prevailing direction of the wind is from the north-east, and it seldom rises above the strength of a moderate breeze. The mean annual temperature at Sibságar town for a period of eight years ending 1881 is returned at 73·3° F., ranging from a mean monthly maximum of 83·5° in June to a mean minimum of 58·6° in January. The average annual rainfall for a period of twenty-five years ending 1881 is returned at 94·67 inches, thus distributed—January to May, 29·28 inches; June to September, 58·47 inches; October to December, 6·92 inches.

The prevailing diseases are fevers of a remittent and intermittent type, dysentery and diarrhœa, pulmonic affections, rheumatism, cutaneous disorders, leprosy, elephantiasis, and goitre. Sporadic cases of cholera occur almost every year; and in 1869 this disease made its appearance in an epidemic form from February to June, and is reported to have carried off about 700 persons. Epidemic small-pox breaks out about every fourth or fifth year, being propagated by the practice of inoculation. In 1883, out of a total number of 8655 deaths registered for the rural tracts, 4241 were assigned to fevers, 1851 to bowel complaints, 1112 to cholera, and 225 to small-pox. The total rural mortality was at the rate of 24·02 per thousand for the rural population, and in the three towns of Sibságar, Jorhát, and Golághát at the rate of 24 per thousand. Three charitable dispensaries in the above towns afforded relief to 7701 in-door and out-door patients in 1883–84. Since 1869, a terrible epizootic has been raging among the cattle and buffaloes of the District. It is identified with the rinder-pest of Europe, and is supposed to have been introduced from Bengal. The mortality has been very great, about two-thirds of the total number of cattle having been carried off. [For further information regarding Sibságar District, see *The Statistical Account of Assam*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. i. pp. 227–287 (London, Trübner & Co., 1879); *A Descriptive Account of Assam*, by W. Robinson (1841); *Report on the Province of Assam*, by A. J. Moffat Mills (1854); the *Assam Census*

Report for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Assam Government.]

Sibságar.—Sub-division of Sibságar District, Assam, comprising the two police circles (*thánás*) of Sibságar and Bartola. Population (1881) 129,166, residing in 648 villages, and occupying 20,771 houses. Hindus number 118,691; Muhammadans, 6776; and 'others,' 3699.

Sibságar.—Chief town and civil head-quarters of Sibságar District, Assam; situated on the Dikhu river, 9 miles from the south bank of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 59′ 10″ N., and long. 94° 38′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 5868, namely, Hindus, 4425; Muhammadans, 1351; and Christians, 92. Municipal income (1882–83), £660. Sibságar was one of the capitals of the Aham dynasty, shortly after their conversion to Hinduism. There still exists a magnificent tank, covering an area of 114 acres, with several old temples on its bank. These works are said to have been constructed by Rájá Sib Singh about the year 1722. There are but few houses in the native town which are not in a dilapidated condition. The *bázár*, which runs along both banks of the Dikhu river, has been greatly improved of late years, and contains many iron-roofed houses and several good shops. Large daily market. The public buildings, and the houses of the European residents, are built along the embankment of the tank. Sibságar is the seat of some river trade. The trading community consist chiefly of up-country Márwárís, who have their head-quarters in Sibságar town, and branch shops at many of the larger tea-gardens. The exports are cotton, rice, and, most important of all, tea; the imports, piece-goods and brass-ware. During the cold season, parties of Nágás from the hills bring down raw cotton and vegetables, to barter for salt, poultry, cattle, and dried fish. During the rainy season, a small steamer plies on the Dikhu river from Dikhumukh to Nazirá, calling at Sibságar.

Siddhápur. — Sub-division of North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-east corner of the District. Area, 239 square miles. Population (1872) 34,183; (1881) 35,658, namely, males 20,446, and females 15,212, occupying 5527 houses in 95 villages. Hindus number 34,606; Muhammadans, 827; and 'others,' 225.

Siddhápur is covered with hills in the west, which in the south-west are thickly wooded, and in the north-west are bare. The valleys among the western hills are generally full of gardens. The centre of the Sub-division is a series of low hills, crossed by rich valleys and many perennial streams. In the east the hills are few, and the country stretches in wide fairly-wooded plains, in parts dotted with sugar-cane and rice-fields; the extreme south-east is hilly and thickly wooded, mostly with evergreen forests. The small streams are of great value for garden irrigation. In the west the soil is red, and in the valleys a rich alluvial mould. In the east the soil is red in places, but is not rich.

The chief products are—rice, sugar-cane, Bengal gram (Cicer arietinum), *kulthi* (Dolichos biflorus), areca-nuts, pepper, cardamoms, betel-leaves, lemons, and oranges. Except in the west, where fever prevails during the later rains and the cold weather, the Sub-division is fairly healthy, and during the hot months the climate is agreeable. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 47 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 25. Land revenue, £9054.

The forests of the Sahyádris are the best in this region. They consist mostly of fine evergreens, admirable for their girth and height. The Siddhápur forests have not been worked for profit; trees required locally and for public works are alone felled. The only exception is sandal-wood, which, when fit, is cut by the Forest Department. The felling and carrying charges are about £4 per ton, and the sale price ranges from £48 to £54 per ton. Canes are general property; other products, such as myrobalans and soap-nuts, are gathered by the Forest Department.

Siddhápur.—Village and head-quarters of Siddhápur Sub-division, North Kánara District, Bombay Presidency; situated about 20 miles west of Honáwar. Population (1881) 1920. Dispensary and market.

Siddhaur.—*Parganá* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Partábganj, on the east by Surájpur, on the south by Haidargarh and Subeha, and on the west by Satrikh *parganás*. Area, 141 square miles, of which 95 square miles are under cultivation. Government land revenue, £11,986. The *parganá* is divided into two sections, north and south. Population (1881) 82,699, namely, Hindus, 70,019; Muhammadans, 12,680; number of villages, 224; houses, 12,177. The tract was originally in the hands of the Bhars, who were expelled by the Muhammadans at the time of the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd. Sayyids still form a great part of the population. The *parganá* was first formed in the time of Akbar.

Siddhaur.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Siddhaur *parganá*; situated 16 miles west of Bara Banki town, in lat. 26° 46′ N., and long. 81° 26′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 3520, namely, Hindus 1811, and Muhammadans 1709. Number of houses, 743. School, registration office, and post-office. The village contains an old Sivaite temple, and a Muhammadan mosque and tomb, in memory of one Kázi Kutab, at which fairs are held on the occasion of the *Siva-ratri* and the *'Id* and *Bakr 'Id* festivals.

Siddheshwara.—Peak on the eastern frontier of Coorg in the Western Gháts, 10 miles from Siddhápur. Lat. 12° 21′ N., long. 76° 3′ E. This hill guards the pass by which the highlands of Coorg are entered from the east. On the summit stands a temple dedicated to Siva.

Siddheswar.—Village at the foot of the Saraspur range, which forms the boundary between the Districts of Cachar and Sylhet, Assam, on the south or left bank of the Bárak river. There is a celebrated Hindu temple here; and about the 18th March an annual fair is held, attended by 3000 persons. At the same time, a religious gathering for bathing takes place on the opposite bank of the river. The place is traditionally stated to have been the abode of the famous *Rishi* Kapilamuní, a fellow-worker of Patanjali, the founder of one of the six systems of Hindu philosophy.

Sidhaut.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras Presidency. Area, 610 square miles. Population (1881) 59,076, namely, males 30,015, and females 29,061, occupying 13,237 houses in 79 villages. Hindus number 55,202; Muhammadans, 3866; and Christians, 8. The soil is divided into red, sandy, and black. To these may be added saline and stony soils. The best land is in the Penner (Ponnaiyár) valley, where water is easily obtained by sinking wells. Little land is cultivated except in the valleys, owing to the hills by which the *táluk* is cut up. These hills are the Lankamallai, the Mallamakonda, and the Pálkonda ranges. In addition to the ordinary grains, the principal products are indigo and cotton. The north-west line of the Madras Railway traverses the southern portion of the *táluk*. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 49 men. Land revenue, £10,007.

Sidhaut (*Sidháwat*).—Town and head-quarters of Sidhaut *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Penner (Pennár or Ponnaiyár) river, in lat. 14° 27′ 56″ N., and long. 79° 0′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 3816, residing in 784 houses. The town formerly belonged to Chitwáil State, and later to the Patháns of Cuddapah; it was taken by Haidar Alí in 1779. In early British times it was the capital of the District, and is now the head-quarters of a Deputy Collector and Magistrate. Sidhaut is a place of some importance and of considerable sanctity. Owing to fancied resemblance in its position on the Penner, and to the relative position of some neighbouring villages and rivers, it is sometimes known as *Dakshina Kási*, or the 'Southern Benares.' It is notable for its melons.

Sidhpur.—Town in Baroda State, Gujarát, Bombay; situated on the Saraswatí river, in lat. 23° 55′ 30″ N., long. 72° 26′ E. Population (1872) 3534. Sidhpur is a very old town, and a place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Sidlagháta (*Sidlagatta*).—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore State. Area, 163 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated. Population (1871) 91,849; (1881) 60,807, namely, males 29,798, and females 31,009.

Hindus number 58,885; Muhammadans, 1839; and Christians, 83. Land revenue (1883), exclusive of water rates, £11,810. Forms the upper valley of the Pápaghni river. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 54 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 591.

Sidlagháta.—Town and municipality in Kolár District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 23′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 54′ 41″ E., 30 miles north-west of Kolár town. Head-quarters of the Sidlagháta *táluk*. Population (1881) 5804, namely, Hindus, 5062; Muhammadans, 740; and Christians, 2. Said to have been founded in 1524 by Sivangi Gauda, a freebooter, whose family extended their power, and held the place for 87 years. Afterwards it passed successively through the hands of the Maráthás, the Mughals, and the *pálegár* of Chik-ballapur.

Sidlí.—One of the Dwárs or submontane tracts forming the Eastern Dwárs of Goálpárá District, Assam. Area, 361 square miles; reserved forest area, 68 square miles, including several valuable forests of *sál* timber; cultivated area, 41·77 square miles. Population (1881) 23,657. Sidlí, like the rest of the Dwár tract, was ceded to the British at the close of the Bhután war of 1864–65. In 1870, a settlement for seven years was made with the Rájá at a land revenue of £1939; but this amount was never actually collected, and the estate was forthwith, at the Rájá's request, placed under the Court of Wards, under whose management it has continued ever since. In 1877, when the first settlement expired, a change was introduced in the system of management. The tract was divided into five *mauzás* or village circles, each placed under a *mauzádár*, who collects the rents direct from the cultivators, to whom annual leases are given for the land they actually cultivate, as in the Assam valley. Twenty per cent. of the net collections are made over to the Rájá Gaurinaráyan Deb. In 1881–82 the net receipts amounted to £3531.

Sígúr Ghát, the corrected spelling for SEGHUR (*q.v.*).—Mountain pass in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency.

Sihonda.—Ancient and decayed town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated near the right bank of the Ken river, a short distance to the right of the Bánda-Kálinjar road; distant from Bánda town 11 miles south. Population (1881) 1277, chiefly Muhammadans. Local tradition declares that the town possessed great importance during the heroic period; but the remains belong chiefly or entirely to Muhammadan times. Capital of an important Division under the Mughals. In 1630 A.D., the rebel Khán Jahán fell at this place in battle against the imperial troops. Sihonda has been gradually declining since the days of Aurangzeb. It is said to have once contained 700 mosques and 900 wells; all the former have disappeared except 4, and most of the latter are now choked up.

Ruins of a large fort on a neighbouring hill; a temple to Deví Angaleswari crowns another height near the town. Village school. Sihonda was formerly the head-quarters of a *tahsíl*, which after the Mutiny was removed to the neighbouring village of Girwán.

Sihor.—Town in Bhaunagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 42′ N., and long. 72° 1′ 45″ E., about 13 miles west of Bhaunagar town, on the slope of the Sihor range of hills. Called in former times Singhpur or Singhpurí, 'the lion city.' A still more ancient name is Sáraswatpur. It formed the capital of the Bhaunagar branch of the Gohel Rájputs until Bhaunagar town was founded. The old site of the city is about half a mile to the south. Population (1881) 9528, namely, Hindus, 7511; Muhammadans, 1249; Jains, 764; and Pársís, 4. Sihor is famous for its brass and copper work, snuff, and mortar (*chunám*). The dyers are numerous and skilful, and dye women's scarves (*sádlás*) with various colours, but they are especially famous for their chocolate dye. Sihor is also a great place for oil-pressers. Two boys' and one girls' school. Station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway.

Sihor.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India.—*See* SEHORE.

Sihorá.—Petty State in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 15½ square miles. The State is watered by the Mahi, Mesri, and Goma rivers. Furrowed by ravines; and much of the land near the river covered with brushwood. The cultivated parts are rich, yielding cotton, rice, millet, and gram. The chief is named Suda Parmar Nar Singhjí. Estimated revenue, £1400; of which £480 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Sihorá.—Central *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Area, 1197 square miles; number of towns and villages, 725; houses, 51,772. Population (1881) 192,722, namely, males 96,387, and females 96,335; average density of population, 161 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 111 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving the assessed area at 1086 square miles. Of these, 526 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 265 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 295 square miles as uncultivable waste. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) was returned in 1881 at 69,296, or 35·96 per cent. of the whole population of the *tahsíl*. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 7 acres. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £19,754, or 1s. 2⅛d. per cultivated acre. Total rental, ...ing cesses, paid by the cultivator, £57,732, or 2s. 4⅜d. per culti... e. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, A... ...les (*thánás*), and 4 outpost stations (*chaukís*); regular police, 91,8... ...police (*chaukídárs*), 476.

Sihorá.—Town and municipality in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Sihorá *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 23° 29′ N., and long. 80° 9′ E., 27 miles from Jabalpur city, on the road to Mírzápur, 4 miles north of the Hiran river, and 2½ miles from Sihorá station on the Jabalpur extension of the East Indian Railway. Population (1881) 5736, namely, Hindus, 4820; Muhammadans, 783; Jains, 119; and 'others,' 14. Municipal income (1882-83), £258, of which £237 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9⅞d. per head. Sihorá does a brisk trade in grain and country produce.

Sihorá (*Tirorá*).—Town in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 24′ N., and long. 79° 58′ E., 30 miles north-east of Bhandárá town. Population (1881) 2781, namely, Hindus, 2476; Muhammadans, 200; Kabírpanthís, 82; Jains, 2; non-Hindu aborigines, 21. Cotton cloth of inferior quality is manufactured. A large tank, south of the town, always contains water. Government school and police outpost.

Sijakpur. — Petty State in the Jháláwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency.—*See* SEJAKPUR.

Sijauli.—Village in Kora *tahsíl*, Fatehpur District; situated in lat. 25° 59′ 28″ N., long. 80° 30′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 2807; prevailing caste, Rájput.

Sijáwal.—*Táluk* of Lárkhána Sub-division, Shikárpur, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 192 square miles. Population (1881) 18,362, namely, males 10,003, and females 8359, occupying 2495 houses in 86 villages. Muhammadans number 16,666; Sikhs, 904; and Hindus, 792. In 1882-83, the area assessed for land revenue was 65,875 acres. Area under actual cultivation, 31,616 acres. Revenue, £6382.

Siju.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, on the Sameswarí river, with a considerable population engaged in fishing. In the neighbourhood are coal mines, which were at one time worked by the Mahárájá of Susáng. Several curious caverns are situated in the limestone formation of the Sameswarí river. The largest of these is in the neighbourhood of Siju village. The entrance is about 20 feet high, with a spacious dome-shaped chamber within. A small stream trickles through the cave, which has been explored for a whole day without the stream having been traced to its source. The cave is filled with swarms of bats.

Sikandarábád (*Secunderábád*).—North-western *tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; comprising the three *parganás* of Sikandarábád, Dádri, and Dankaur; stretching inland from the east bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and watered by two branches of the Ganges Canal. The East Indian Railway traverses the *tahsíl* from end to end, with two stations (at Sikandarábád and Dádri). Area of

tahsíl, 524 square miles, of which 370 are cultivated. Population (1881) 236,066, namely, males 127,442, and females 108,624. Hindus number 196,932; Muhammadans, 38,612; Jains, 495; and 'others,' 27. Of the 415 towns and villages, 248 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 124 between five hundred and a thousand; 41 between one thousand and five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. Land revenue (1872), £28,996; total Government revenue, £32,173; rental paid by cultivators, £76,132. In 1883 the *tahsíl* contained 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 8; strength of regular police, 91 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 638.

Sikandarábád (*Secunderábád*).—Town and municipality in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Sikandarábád *tahsíl*. Situated on the Delhi branch of the Grand Trunk Road, in lat. 28° 27′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 44′ 40″ E., 10 miles east of Bulandshahr town; the station on the East Indian Railway is 4 miles south of the town. Population (1881) 16,479, namely, males 8702, and females 7777. Hindus, 10,094; Muhammadans, 6050; Jains, 320; and 'others,' 15. Municipal income (1883-84), £1105, of which £912 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1¼d. per head. Two good *bázárs*, the centre of the local trade in cotton, sugar, and grain. Founded by Sikandar Lodi in 1498; head-quarters of a *mahál* under Akbar; centre of the fief of Najíb-ud-daulá. Saádat Khán, Viceroy of Oudh, attacked and defeated the Maráthá force here in 1736. The Ját army of Bhartpur encamped at Sikandarábád in 1764, but fled across the Jumna (Jamuná) on the death of Suráj Mall and defeat of Jawáhir Singh. Station of Perron's brigade under the Maráthás. Occupied by Colonel James Skinner after the battle of Alígarh. During the Mutiny of 1857, the neighbouring Gújars, Rájputs, and Muhammadans attacked and plundered Sikandarábád; but Colonel Greathed's column relieved the town on September 27th, 1857. *Tahsíli* and police station; charitable dispensary; vernacular school. Several small mosques and temples. Residence of Munshí Lakshman Sarúp, a large landholder and honorary magistrate. Manufacture of fine muslins for turbans, scarves, and native dresses.

Sikandarábád.—Town and cantonment in the Nizám's Dominions. —*See* SECUNDERABAD.

Sikandarpur.—*Parganá* in Unao *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Pariar, on the east by Unao, on the south by Harha, and on the west by Cawnpur District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 58½ square miles, or 37,453 acres. Population (1881) 31,416, namely, males 14,923, and females 16,493. Chief products, barley and sugar-cane. Government land revenue, £5807, or an

average assessment of 3s. 1¼d. per acre. The *parganá* comprises 51 villages, of which 48 are in the hands of Purihar Rájputs. The history of this clan is thus described in Mr. Elliott's *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 58–60:—

'The present Purihars in Unao District inhabit the *parganá* of Sarosi, or, as it has recently become habitual to call it, Sikandarpur. According to their own traditions, they came from a place called Jigini (which is not to be found on the map), or Srínagar, *i.e.* Kashmír. From that high hill country they were driven—we know not by what cause—to inhabit the sandy plains of Márwár. Expelled thence, they were broken into innumerable little principalities, which found no abiding place, and have undergone continual changes, till we meet with a small portion of the clan who settled, comparatively a short time ago, in a little corner of Oudh; and even here the name of the beautiful valley from which they came ten centuries ago is still common in the mouths of men.

'The story of the settling of the ancestors of the clan in Sarosi is thus told. About three hundred years ago, in the time of Humáyún, Emperor of Delhi, a Dikhit girl from Purenda was married to the son of the Purihar Rájá, who lived at Jigini, across the Jumna. The bridegroom came with a large escort of his friends and brotherhood to celebrate the marriage, and the party on their journey passed through Sarosi. As they sat down around a well (the site of which is still shown), they asked who were the lords of the fort which stood not far off. They were told that the fort was held by Dhobís (washermen) and other Súdras who owned the neighbouring country. The procession then went on to Purenda, and returning, conducted the bride to her home. Just before the *Holi* festival, a party, headed by Bhagé Singh, returned, waited for the evening of that riotous feast, and then, when the guards of the fort were heavy with wine, and no danger was looked for, suddenly attacked and slaughtered them, and made themselves masters of the fort and the surrounding country.

'Bhagé Singh had four sons, and they divided the eighty-four villages he had conquered at his death. Asis and Salhu, the two eldest sons, took the largest portion of the estate—twenty villages falling to the former, and forty-two to the latter. The third son, Manik, was a devotee, and refused to be troubled with worldly affairs. All he asked for was one village on the banks of the Ganges, where he might spend his life in worship, and wash away his sins three times a day in the holy stream. The youngest son, Bhuledhán, was quite a boy at the time of his father's death, and took what share his brothers chose to give him; and they do not seem to have treated him badly.

'The law of primogeniture did not exist among the family. Every son, as he grew up and married, claimed his right to a separate share of his father's inheritance; and thus the ancestral estate constantly

dwindled as fresh slices were cut off it, till at last the whole family were a set of impoverished gentlemen, who kept up none of the dignity which had belonged to the first conquerors, Bhagé Singh and his sons. For six generations they stagnated thus, no important event marking their history till the time of Hira Singh. The family property in his time had grown very small, and he had five sons to divide it amongst; and, to add to his misfortunes, he was accused of some crime, thrown into prison at Faizábád, and loaded with chains. With the chains on his legs he escaped, arrived safely at Sarosi, and lay in hiding there. His pride being thus broken, he resolved to send his third son, Kalandar Singh, to take service in the Company's army. He rose to be Subahdár Major in the 49th Regiment of Native Infantry; and in this position, through his supposed influence with the Resident, became a very considerable man. He knew that as long as he was at hand, no *chakladár* or governor would venture to treat the Purihar *zamíndárs* with injustice; but on his death they would be again at the mercy of the local authorities. He therefore collected all the members of the brotherhood who were descended from Asis, and persuaded them to mass their divided holdings nominally into one large estate, of which his nephew Ghuláb Singh should be the representative *tálukdár;* so that while in reality each small shareholder retained sole possession of his own share, they should present the appearance of a powerful and united *táluk*, making Ghuláb Singh their nominal head. Thus the *chakladárs* would be afraid to touch a man who seemed to hold so large an estate, though in reality he only enjoyed a small portion of it. The brotherhood consented to this; and from 1840 till the British annexation the estate was held in the name of Ghuláb Singh alone, and they had no further trouble from the oppressions of the *chakladárs*.'

Sikandarpur.—Town in Bánsdih *tahsíl*, Ballia District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 02′ 18″ N., and long. 84° 05′ 45″ E., 2 miles from the right bank of the Gográ, 14 miles from Bánsdih, and 24 miles from Ballia town. Population (1881) 7027, namely, Hindus 4349, and Muhammadans 2678. The town was founded in the 15th century, during the reign of Sikandar Lodi of Jaunpur, after whom it was named. Its former importance is attested by the ruins of a large fort, and of houses extending over a large area. Its decadence is locally ascribed to the wholesale migration of the inhabitants to Patná, but nothing is known as to the cause or even the date of this abandonment. The local market is still famous for its
boun r of roses and other essences, of which there is a considerable
Harha, t to Bengal. Police station, post-office, and middle-class school.
Provinces. ice and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is raised, which
31,416, nam 86 in 1881–82.

—Village in Agra *tahsíl*, Agra District, North-W

Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 12′ 59″ N., and long. 77° 59′ 34″ E., 5 miles north-west of Agra city, on the Muttra road. Population (1881) 1745. Founded by Sikandar Lodi of Jaunpur, who built a palace here in 1495, but now chiefly noticeable as containing the tomb of Akbar, commenced by that monarch, and finished by his son Jahángir in 1613. Fergusson describes the mausoleum as the most characteristic of Akbar's buildings. It is quite unlike any other tomb in India erected before or since, and the design is believed by Fergusson to be borrowed from a Hindu, or, more correctly, a Buddhist model. It is surrounded by an extensive garden of 150 acres, still kept in order, and is approached on each side by archways of red sandstone, the principal gateway being of magnificent proportions.

'In the centre of this garden, on a raised platform, stands the tomb itself, of a pyramidal form. The lower terrace measures 320 feet each way, exclusive of the angle towers. It is 30 feet in height, and pierced by ten great arches on each face, and with a larger entrance, adorned with a mosaic of marble in the centre.

'On this terrace stands another far more ornate, measuring 186 feet on each side, and 14 feet 9 inches in height. A third and fourth, of similar design, and respectively 15 feet 2 inches and 14 feet 6 inches high, stand on this; all these being of red sandstone. Within and above the last is a white marble enclosure, 157 feet each way, or externally just half the length of the lowest terrace, its outer wall entirely composed of marble trellis-work of the most beautiful patterns. Inside, it is surrounded by a colonnade or cloister of the same material, in the centre of which, on a raised platform, is the tombstone of the founder a splendid piece of the most beautiful Arabesque tracery. This, however, is not the true burial-place; but the mortal remains of the great king repose under a far plainer tombstone in a vaulted chamber in the basement, 35 feet square, exactly under the simulated tomb that adorns the summit of the mausoleum.

'The total height of the building now is a little more than 100 feet to the top of the angle pavilions; and a central dome, 30 or 40 feet higher, which is the proportion that the base gives, seems just what is wanted to make this tomb as beautiful in outline and in proportion as it is in detail. Had it been so completed, it certainly would have ranked next to the Táj among Indian mausolea.'

An asylum was established at Sikandra in 1837–38, for the orphans whose parents had perished in the terrible famine of that year. The orphanage is still maintained by the Church Mission Society.

Sikandra.—Village in Phúlpur *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 35′ 15″ N., long. 82° 1′ 6″ E. Population (1881) 2005. About a mile north-west of the village is the tomb of Mahmúd of Ghazní's famous general Sayyid Salár Masaúd, at

which a fair is held every May, attended by about 50,000 Muhammadan pilgrims.

Sikandra Ráo.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; comprising the *parganás* of Sikandra and Akarábád, and consisting chiefly of a fertile upland plain, watered in every direction by distributaries of the Ganges Canal. Area, 342 square miles, of which 233 are cultivated. Population (1881) 175,873, namely, males 96,099, and females 79,774. Hindus, 155,890; Muhammadans, 19,616; Jains, 366; 'others,' 1. Of the 245 villages in the *tahsíl*, 140 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 62 between five hundred and a thousand; 42 between one and five thousand; and 1 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. Land revenue at the time of the last Settlement Report, £3873, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £4260. In 1884 the *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal court, with 4 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 74 men; rural police or village watch (*chaukídárs*), 356.

Sikandra Ráo.—Town and municipality in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Sikandra Ráo *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 27° 41′ 10″ N., and long. 78° 25′ 15″ E., on the Cawnpur road, 23 miles south-east of Koil. Population (1881) 10,193, namely, males 5109, and females 5084. Hindus number 5552; Muhammadans, 4606; and Jains, 35. Municipal income (1883–84), £791, of which £739 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. $2\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population (12,171) within municipal limits. Sikandra Ráo is a squalid, poor-looking town, on a low, badly-drained site. A great swamp spreads eastward, attaining a length of 4 miles during the rains. Founded in the 15th century by Sikandra Lodi, and afterwards given in *jágír* to Ráo Khán, an Afghán, from which circumstances the town derives its compound name. During the Mutiny of 1857, Ghaus Khán of Sikandra Ráo was one of the leading rebels, and held Koil as deputy for Walidád Khán of Málágarh. Kundan Singh, a Pundír Rájput, did good service on the British side, and held the *parganá* as Názim. Mosque dating from Akbar's time; ruined house in the town, once the residence of the Muhammadan governor. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office, school, dispensary.

Sikar.—Town and chiefship in the Shaikháwati district of Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 17,739, namely, males 9418, and females 8321. Hindus number 11,890; Muhammadans, 5117; and 'others,' 732. Sikar chiefship is a feudatory of Jaipur, and pays a tribute of £4000 a year. Estimated revenue, £80,000. The town is fortified, and is distant 72 miles north-west from Jaipur city. Post-office.

Sikhar.—Town and fort in Benares District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Ganges, nearly opposite

Chunár, in lat. 25° 8′ N., and long. 82° 53′ E. Garrisoned in 1781 by the rebellious Rájá Cháit Singh, but stormed by the British under Lieutenant Polhill.

Sikkim.—Native State in the Eastern Himálaya Mountains; bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet, on the south-east by Bhután, on the south by the British District of Dárjíling, and on the west by Nepál. Situated between 27° 9′ and 27° 58′ N. lat., and between 88° 4′ and 89° E. long.; covering an area of about 1550 square miles, with an estimated population of 7000. The capital is Tumlong, where the Rájá resides during the winter and spring, usually going to his estates at Chumbi in Tibet in summer to avoid the heavy rains of Sikkim. The Tibetan name for Sikkim is *Dingjing* or *Demojong*, and for the people *Deunjong Mars;* the Gúrkha name for the people of Sikkim (which has been adopted by English writers) is *Lepcha;* but they call themselves *Rong*, according to Mr. Clements Markham.

Physical Aspects.—The whole of Sikkim is situated at a considerable elevation within the Himálayan mountain-zone. Between Dárjíling and Tumlong the mountains are generally lower than those of Dárjíling itself. North of Tumlong, the passes into Tibet have been recently visited by Mr. Blanford and Mr. Edgar, and found to be of great height. The most southerly of these passes (as described by Mr. Markham, in the introduction to his *Tibet*, second edition, 1879) is that of Jeylep-la, about 50 miles beyond Tumlong, 13,000 feet above sea-level. The two next to the north are those of Guátiula and Yak-la, the latter 14,000 feet high: these, Mr. Markham says, are rarely interrupted by snow for many days, and form the easiest route into the Chumbi valley of Tibet. Farther to the north is the Cho-la Pass, 15,000 feet high, on the direct road from Tumlong to Chumbi. The Yak-la, Cho-la and Jeylep-la Passes cross the lofty spur of the Himálayas separating the Chumbi and Tísta valleys. Then comes the Tankra-la Pass, 16,083 feet high, the most snowy pass in Sikkim.

Sikkim is drained by the river TISTA, and its affluents the Lachen the Lachung, the Búri Ranjít, the Moing, the Rangri, and the Rangchu The Am-machu rises near Parijong, at the foot of the Chamalhari Peak (23,929 feet), and flows through the Chumbi valley, which is a strip of Tibetan territory separating Sikkim from Bhután. In this lower part of its course, the Am-machu passes into the British District of Jalpáiguri, under the name of the TORSHA. The rivers of Sikkim generally run in very deep ravines between the mountains; and the ascent from the bank, for the first thousand feet, is almost precipitous. All the rivers are very rapid. According to Dr. Hooker's measurement, the Ranjít, in a course of 23 miles, between the *ghát* above the Kulhait river and that at the cane-bridge below Dárjíling, falls 987 feet; whilst

the Tísta falls 821 feet in about 10 miles, and flows in places at the rate of 14 miles an hour.

Near Mintugong are some copper mines, worked by Nepálese. Mr. Edgar (*Report on a Visit to Sikkim and the Tibetan Frontier*, 1874, p. 84) found that the Bhutiá population are superstitiously averse to any search for metals below the earth's surface; and consequently little is known of the mineral resources of the country. Mr. Edgar, however, was of opinion that every mine is abandoned long before the vein of ore has been exhausted.

The valleys and slopes of this mountainous land are clothed with dense jungle, the vegetation in which varies, according to the elevation, from the cotton, banian, fig, and other tropical trees, which are found in the lower zones, to the fir, rhododendron, and dwarf bamboo, which appear above the level of 10,000 feet. The bamboo grows to enormous size, often attaining a diameter of 7 to 9 inches. The canes used in the construction of the well-known Himálayan cane-bridges grow principally in the bamboo jungles. The cane is found of the diameter of 1½ to 2 inches; and a single piece was once traced through the jungle by Colonel Gawler (*Sikkim; Mountain and Jungle Warfare*, 1873, p. 13) for a distance of 80 yards without finding the end.

The wild animals are the same as those found in the jungles of DARJILING. Travellers in Sikkim suffer greatly from the *pipsa*, and from the leeches which abound everywhere. Colonel Gawler writes of them: 'The jungles are infested with leeches, which penetrate loosely woven clothes, and deprive the wearer of a good deal of blood before he finds them out. They get far up the noses of horses goats, etc., and cannot be removed without subjecting the poor animal to a couple of days without water, which, being afterwards offered to him, the leeches also want to drink, and may be seized. If the leeches are allowed to remain, the animals become reduced to a skeleton.'

History.—Sikkim was known to early European travellers, such as Horace della Penna and Samuel Van de Putte, under the name of *Bramashon* (*see* Markham's *Tibet*, p. 64); whilst Bogle called it *Demojong*. Local traditions assert that the ancestors of the Rájás of Sikkim originally came from the neighbourhood of Lhasa in Tibet, and settled at Gantak. About the middle of the 16th century, the head of the family was named Pencho Namgay; and to him repaired three Tibetan monks, professors of the *Dupka* (or 'Red Cap') sect of Buddhism, who were disgusted at the predominance of the *Galukpa* sect in Tibet. These Lamas, according to Mr. Edgar's *Report*, succeeded in converting the Lepchas of Sikkim to their own faith, and in making Pencho Namgay Rájá of the land. The *avatárs* of two of these Lamas are now the heads, respectively, of the great monasteries of Pemiongchi and Tassiding. In 1788 the Gúrkhas invaded

Sikkim, in the governorship of the Morang, and only retired, in 1789, on the Tibetan Government ceding to them a piece of territory at the head of the Koti Pass. But in 1792, on a second invasion of Tibetan territory by the Gúrkhas, an immense Chinese army advanced to the support of the Tibetans, defeated the Gúrkhas, and dictated terms to them almost at the gates of Khatmandu.

On the breaking out of the Nepál war in 1814, Major Latter, at the head of a British force, occupied the Morang, and formed an alliance with the Rájá of Sikkim, who gladly seized the opportunity of revenging himself on the Gúrkhas. At the close of the war, in 1816, the Rájá was rewarded by a considerable accession of territory, which had been ceded to the British by Nepál, and by the usual guarantee of protection. In February 1835, the Rájá ceded Dárjíling to the British, and received a pension of £300 per annum in acknowledgment thereof.

There was, however a standing cause of quarrel between the Rájá and the paramount power, due to the prevalence of slavery in Sikkim: the Rájá's subjects were inveterate kidnappers, and the Rájá himself was most anxious to obtain from the British authorities the restoration of runaway slaves. With some absurd notion of enforcing the latter demand, two gentlemen (Dr. Campbell, the Superintendent of Dárjíling, and Dr. Hooker, the famous naturalist) were seized in 1849, whilst travelling in Sikkim, and detained for six weeks. As a punishment for this outrage, the Rájá's pension was stopped, and a piece of territory, including the lower course of the Tísta and the Sikkim *tarái*, was annexed. The practice, however, of kidnapping Bengáli subjects of the British Crown was not discontinued; and two specially gross cases, in 1860, led to an order from Calcutta, that the Sikkim territory, north of the Rammán river and west of the Búri Ranjít, should be occupied until restitution was made. Colonel Gawler, at the head of a British force, with the Hon. Ashley Eden as envoy, advanced into Sikkim, and proceeded to Tumlong, when the Rájá was forced to make full restitution, and to sign another treaty, in March 1861, which secured the rights of free trade, of protection for travellers, and of road-making.

Since the ratification of this treaty, relations with Sikkim have been uniformly friendly, and the country has been repeatedly explored by travellers, who have followed in the footsteps of Dr. Hooker. In 1873, the Rájá of Sikkim, accompanied by his brother and minister, Changzed Rabu (a man of great abilities and predominating influence), and other members of his family, paid a visit to the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal at Dárjíling; and in the following winter, Mr. Edgar, C.S.I., returned the Rájá's visit, as the representative of the Bengal Government, and obtained the materials for the valuable *Report* quoted above.

Population, etc.—The population of Sikkim was estimated by Dr. Campbell at 7000; of whom about 3000 are Lepchas, 2000 Bhutias,

and 1000 Limbus. Eastward of the Tísta, Colonel Gawler found some Tibetans. The Buddhist monks—each monastery under its own head Lama—form a numerous and influential section of the population. The chief villages are Tumlong (the capital) and Gantak; the chief monasteries are those of Labrong near Tumlong, Pemiongchi, and Tassiding. The head of the Labrong monastery is called the Kupgain Lama; and Mr. Edgar states that he is also the superior of Pemiongchi, and of nearly two-thirds of the monasteries of Sikkim. On the Tumlong Hill, besides the Rájá's palace, there are a number of other substantially built houses belonging to the various officials of the State. Each house is surrounded by some cultivated land, in which are generally a few clumps of bamboos or fruit-trees. During the rainy season, many of these houses are vacant, the officials being absent with the Rájá at Chumbi in Tibet. The house of the Kázi at Gantak is described as 'a very ornamental building of wattle and dab, raised on stout posts.'

Agriculture, Land Tenures, and Revenue System.—The chief cultivated crops in the valleys and in the clearings on the hills of Sikkim are wheat, buckwheat, barley, *maruá*, maize, and a little rice; but no more grain is grown than suffices for local consumption. Cardamoms and oil-seeds are cultivated in the low valleys in the extreme west of the State. Plantains, oranges, and other fruits are grown in the gardens. Cattle and ponies are imported from Tibet. Between Pemiongchi and the little Ranjít, there is a curious tract of level country, described by Mr. Edgar as a great even ledge, several square miles in extent, with hills rising abruptly from it on three sides, whilst on the fourth side there is a precipitous fall of many hundred feet. The soil of this plain is exceedingly rich, as it catches all the silt of the upper hills; and every inch of it is highly cultivated, chiefly with cardamoms, oil-seeds, and other valuable crops.

Mr. Edgar gives the following interesting account of the revenue system and land tenures:—

'There are twelve Kázis in Sikkim, and several other officers with various names exercise jurisdiction over specific tracts of land. Each of these officers assesses the revenue payable by all the people settled on the lands within his jurisdiction, and, as far as I can make out, keeps the greater portion for himself, paying over to the Rájá a certain fixed contribution. At the same time, he has no proprietary right in the lands, though the Kázis have at least a kind of hereditary title to their office. The Kázis and other officers exercise limited civil and criminal jurisdiction within the lands the revenue of which they collect, all important cases being referred to the Rájá, and decided by Changzed (the minister) and the Diwáns, who are at present three in number. The cultivators have no title to the soil, and a man can settle down

and cultivate any land he may find unoccupied without any formality whatever; and when once he has occupied the land, no one but the Rájá can turn him out. But the Rájá can eject him at any time; and if he should cease to occupy the land, he would not retain any lien upon it. There is a kind of tenant-right, however, under which cultivators are enabled to dispose of unexhausted improvements. Thus, as it was explained to me, a man who has terraced a piece of hillside could not sell the land, but is allowed to sell the right of using the terraces. This custom is acknowledged not to be absolutely a right, but more of the nature of an indulgence on the part of the Rájá, by whom it was allowed to grow up for the sake of convenience.

'The land is not assessed, and pays no revenue. The assessment is on the revenue-payer personally. I think that in theory he is allowed the use of the Rájá's land in order that he may live and be able to render to the Rájá the services which he is bound to perform as the Rájá's live chattel; and possibly if the system were carried to theoretical perfection, he would be bound to give over to the Rájá all the net produce of the land—that is, all the fruit of his labour beyond what might be actually necessary to support himself and his family. In practice, the subject is only bound to give a certain portion of his labour, or of the fruit of his labour, to the State; and when he does not give actual service, the amount of his property is roughly assessed, and his contribution to the State fixed accordingly; but such assessment is made without the slightest reference to the amount of land occupied by the subject. The value of his wives and children, slaves, cattle, furniture, etc., are all taken into account, but not the extent of his fields.'

The Lamas are not bound to labour for the Rájá, and they pay no dues of any kind, no matter how much land may be cultivated by themselves or their bondsmen.

Commerce, etc.—There are several trade routes through Sikkim, from the British District of Dárjíling into Tibet; but owing partly to the natural difficulties of the country, and partly to the jealousy of the Tibetans, these are not much used. At Rangpo-tang, on the Tísta, and at other points, there are good cane-bridges, and in some places there are raft-ferries; but all roads are mere hill bridle-paths, and communication is exceedingly imperfect and difficult. The *Report* of the British envoy in 1861 stated that a considerable trade between Bengal and Tibet would be the almost certain result of improved communications through Sikkim; the Tibetans exporting gold, silver, ponies, musk, borax, wool, turquoises, silk, and *manjit* or madder, in exchange for broadcloth, bleached goods, tobacco, and pearls. In addition to this transit trade, Sikkim supplies ponies, sheep, and jungle produce to the British territory of Dárjíling, and imports therefrom some British manufactures, tobacco, etc. A registration station has

been established at Ranjít. In 1876–77, the total exports from Sikkim into Dárjíling were valued at £80,265, of which timber alone represented £70,870; the total imports were valued at £14,164, chiefly indigo (£6600), cattle (£2322), metals (£1773), piece-goods (£1357), tobacco (£967). In 1883–84, the total exports from Sikkim into Bengal had fallen to £2215; and the total imports from Bengal into Sikkim to £1127.

Climate and Medical Aspects.—The ranges between Dárjíling and Tumlong are lower than Dárjíling itself, and generally less cool; whilst the deep narrow valleys of most of the rivers have a hot and stifling climate, notorious for its malaria and jungle-fever. The rainfall, like that of Dárjíling, is very heavy. There is usually a little dulness, and perhaps rain, late in December and early in January; after which the weather remains bright and clear until May, when storms, growing more and more frequent, usher in the rainy season, which lasts till October.

Sikrol (*Sirol*).—Western suburb of BENARES CITY, containing the military cantonments, civil station, and European quarter. Lat. 25° 20′ 20″ N., long. 83° 1′ 20″ E. The little river Barná flows through the suburb, dividing it into two parts. Church, official buildings, numerous well-built bungalows, standing amid gardens and groves.

Silái.—River of Bengal; rises in the Fiscal Division of Ládhurká, Mánbhúm District, and flows in a south-easterly direction into the District of Midnapur. After a tortuous course it falls into the RUPNARAYAN, of which it forms the chief tributary, near the point where that river touches the eastern boundary of Midnapur. The Silái is subject to destructive floods; it is only navigable throughout the year for a short distance in its lower reaches, which are within tidal influence. It is fed by two small streams from Bánkurá District, on the north—the Purandhar-nadí and Gopa-nadí. The other and principal feeder of the Silái is the Burí-nadí, which takes its rise in the north-west of Midnapur District, and flows east into the Silái near Nárájol.

Silána.—Petty State in the Soráth *prant* or division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 shareholders or tribute-payers. Area, 4 square miles. Population (1881) 691. Estimated revenue, £300; of which £10 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Silánáth.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the Kamlá river, in lat. 26° 34′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 9′ 45″ E. Population (1872) 2520. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. Noted for its fairs held in November, and again in February or March, for about 15 days, and attended by 15,000 people, chiefly from the *tarái*. Grain forms the principal article of commerce; from the Nepál Hills are brought iron-ore, hatchets, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, and musk. The fair doubtless had its origin in pilgrims coming to visit a temple of

Mahádeo, which stood here; but the Kamlá has changed its course, and washed the temple away, and now no traces of it remain.

Silang.—Mountain range and town in the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, Assam.—*See* SHILLONG.

Silchár.—Chief town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of the District of Cachar, Assam; situated in lat. 24° 49′ 40″ N., and long. 92° 50′ 48″ E., on the south bank of the Bárak river. Population (1881) 6567, namely, Hindus, 4807; Muhammadans, 1647; Christians, 75; and 'others,' 38. Municipal income (1881–82), £1168, or an average of 3s. 4¾d. per head of the population (6869) within municipal limits. Silchár is also a military cantonment. In 1885, the 42nd Bengal Native Infantry was stationed here, together with 2 guns of mountain artillery. The town is also the head-quarters of a company of rifle volunteers. A handsome new church has been erected since the earthquake of 1869. The town is built on a neck of land formed by a bend in the river. The surface is swampy in some parts, but in others it rises into low sandy hillocks, locally called *tilás*. In recent years, much attention has been paid to sanitary improvements. A large trading fair or *melá* is held annually in January, lasting for about seven days. The average attendance is estimated at 20,000 persons; the articles sold include cotton goods and ponies from Manipur. On 10th January 1869, a severe shock of earthquake was felt at Silchár. The church and public buildings fell down, and the greater part of the *bázár* was laid in ruins. The surface was rent into deep fissures, and in some parts sank down as much as from 15 to 30 feet. Another severe shock occurred on the 13th October 1882, causing much damage to masonry buildings.

Silhetí.—*Zamíndárí* or petty chiefship in Drug *tahsíl*, Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 60 miles north-west of Ráipur town; comprising 28 villages, formerly part of Gandai chiefship. Area, 83 square miles. Population (1881) 4475, occupying 1369 houses; average density of population, 54 persons per square mile. The chief is a Gond. The village of Silhetí lies in lat. 21° 47′ N., and long. 81° 9′ E.

Sillána.—Native State in Central India.—*See* SAILANA.

Siller (*Selere*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Flows east, then north to Umada, where it turns west, and finally south-west, and joins the Saveri at Moat, about 20 miles north-east of the junction of the latter stream with the Godávari. The Siller has a very tortuous course through mountainous country; total length, about 150 miles.

Silondí. — Town in Sihora *tahsíl*, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Population (1881) 2025, namely, Hindus, 1893; Kabírpanthís, 42; Jains, 31; Muhammadans, 49; and non-Hindu aborigines, 10.

Silpáta.—Village in Chatgári Dwár, Darrang District, Assam, at which a large fair is held annually during the *Bor Bihu* festival, chiefly attended by the Cachari population.

Simgá.—Northern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1401 square miles; number of villages, 751; houses, 95,743. Total population (1881) 275,626, namely, males 136,171, and females 139,455; average density of population, 196·7 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 11 square miles are held revenue-free, leaving the assessed area at 1390 square miles. Of these, 770 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 541 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 79 square miles as uncultivable waste. The adult agricultural population (male and female) was returned in 1881 at 127,251, or 46·17 per cent. of the total population of the *tahsíl*. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 7 acres. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £15,027, or an average of 7¼d. per cultivated acre. Total rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, £29,813, or an average of 1s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. In 1884, Simgá *tahsíl* contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, with a regular police force numbering 112 men.

Simgá.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, on the Seo river, and head-quarters of Simgá *tahsíl;* 28 miles north of Ráipur town, on the road to Biláspur. Population (1881) 2277, namely, Hindus, 1633; Muhammadans, 326; Kabírpanthís, 131; Satnámís, 88; Jain, 1; and non-Hindu aborigines, 98. Besides the usual Sub-divisional courts and offices, Simgá has a town school, girls' school, police office, and post-office.

Simháchalam.—Temple in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. —*See* SINHACHALAM.

Simla.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, consisting of several detached plots of territory; situated among the hills of the lower Himálayan system. These plots are surrounded on all sides by the territories of independent chiefs under the control of the Deputy Commissioner of Simla, who is *ex officio* Superintendent of the Hill States. Area of British territory, 81 square miles. Population (1881) 42,945 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at SIMLA, the summer capital of the Government of India, in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 77° 11′ E.

Physical Aspects.—The mountains of Simla District and the surrounding Native States compose the southern outliers of the great central chain of the Western Himálayas. They descend in a gradual series from the main chain itself in Bashahr State to the general level of the Punjab plain in Ambála (Umballa) District, thus forming a transverse southwesterly spur between the great basins of the Ganges and the Indus, here

respectively represented by their tributaries the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Sutlej. A few miles north-east of Simla, the spur divides into two main ridges, one of which curves round the Sutlej valley toward the north-west, while the other, crowned by the sanitarium of Simla, trends south-eastward to a point a few miles north of Subáthu, where it merges at right angles in the mountains of the Outer or Sub-Himálayan system, which run parallel to the principal range. South and east of Simla the hills between the Sutlej and the Tons centre in the great peak of Chor, 11,982 feet above the sea. Throughout all the hills, forests of *deodar* abound, while rhododendrons clothe the slopes up to the limit of perpetual snow. The scenery in the immediate neighbourhood of Simla itself presents a series of magnificent views, embracing on the south the Ambála plains, with the Subáthu and Kasauli Hills in the foreground, and the massive block of the Chor a little to the left; while just below the spectator's feet a series of huge ravines lead down into the deep valleys which score the mountain-sides. Northwards, the eye wanders over a network of confused chains, rising range above range, and crowned in the distance by a crescent of snowy peaks, standing out in bold relief against the clear background of the sky. The principal torrents of the surrounding tracts are the Sutlej, Pabar, the Giri Gangá, the Gambhar, and the Sarsa.

Exclusive of military cantonments, Simla District comprises an area of less than 81 square miles, distributed over five detached *ilákas.* The first of these *ilákas* is Kálka, a small tract about one square mile in area, acquired by gift from the Mahárájá of Patiála as a site for a *bázár* and depôt at the spot where the road to Simla first enters the hills. The second *iláka* is Bharauli, with which are included the isolated villages of Kála and Kalag, and a small detached group of four villages near Kasauli, known as the Shiwa Iláka. The area of the whole is about 15,000 acres, which have remained in our possession since the close of the Gúrkha war, when the old ruling family was found to be extinct. The main Bharauli territory consists of a narrow valley in the hollow of the hills stretching from Subáthu to Kiári Ghát, on the Simla road. The third *iláka* is Simla, a small tract of less than 4000 acres, chiefly occupied by the hill station of Simla, the cultivated area being less than 200 acres. The whole *iláka* was acquired in 1830 from Patiála and Keunthál in exchange for other land. The fourth is Kotkhái, a small territory of about 22,000 acres, lying 20 miles east of Simla, around the sources of the Giri. It was acquired in 1828 by voluntary cession from the Ráná Bhagwán Singh. The fifth and last *iláka* is Kot-guru, otherwise known as Kotgarh. It is another small tract of less than 11,000 acres, lying along a spur of the Hathu mountain, on the bank of the Sutlej, 22 miles north-east from Simla as the crow flies. It originally belonged to the Kotkhái principality, was then appropriated by the

Rájá of Kúlu, from whom it was forcibly taken by Bashahr, in whose possession it remained for forty years, when it was seized by the Gúrkhas. On our invitation it was again occupied by Kúlu troops during the Gúrkha war of 1815, and was eventually retained by us when these hostilities were brought to a close.

History.—The acquisition of the patches of territory composing Simla District dates from the period of the Gúrkha war in 1815-16. At a very early time the Hill States, together with the outer portion of Kángra District, probably formed part of the Katoch kingdom of JALANDHAR (Jullundur); and, after the disruption of that principality, they continued to be governed by petty Rájás till the beginning of the present century. After the encroachments of the Gúrkhas led to the British invasion of their dominions in 1815, our troops remained in possession of the whole block of hill country between the Gogra and the Sutlej. Kumáun and the Dehrá Dún became a portion of British territory; a few separate localities were retained as military posts, and a portion of Keunthál State was sold to the Rájá of Patiála. With these exceptions, however, the tract conquered in 1815 was restored to the Hill Rájás, from whom it had been wrested by the Gúrkhas. Garhwál State became attached to the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces; but the remaining principalities rank among the dependencies of the Punjab, and are known collectively as the Simla Hill States. From one or other of these, the plots now composing the little District of Simla have been gradually acquired. Part of the hill over which the Simla sanatorium now spreads was retained by Government in 1816, and an additional strip of land was obtained from Keunthál in 1830. The spur known as Jutogh, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the station, was acquired by exchange from Patiála in 1843, as the equivalent of two villages in Barauli. Kotkhái Kotgarh, again, fell into our hands through the abdication of itsRáná, who refused to accept charge of the petty State. The Kasauli Hill originally belonged to Bíja, but was relinquished in consideration of a small annual payment. Subáthu Hill was retained from the beginning as a military fort; and the other fragments of the District have been added at various dates.

Population.—The results of the Census of 1881 can hardly be regarded as fairly representing the actual state of the District, for with the exception of Barauli and Kotkhái, the British territory possesses no rural population of its own. Nor do the figures show the normal number of inhabitants on the plots which compose the District, as the Census was taken in February, one of the months when Simla and Kasauli are almost empty. Nevertheless, for the sake of uniformity, the statistics may be appended for what they are worth. The enumeration extended over an area of 81 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 42,945 persons, inhabiting 263 towns and villages, and 6559

houses. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 27,593; females, 15,352: proportion of males, 64·2 per cent. This great discrepancy between the sexes is due to the number of male immigrants connected with the sanitaria of Simla and Kasauli, who do not bring their families with them. According to religion—Hindus numbered 32,428, or 75·5 per cent.; Muhammadans, 6935, or 16·1 per cent.; Sikhs, 202, or 0·5 per cent.; Jains, 23; Buddhists, 4; and Christians, 3353, or 7·8 per cent. The Bráhmans numbered 2567. Among these the Sásani grade ranks highest in popular estimation, and supplies the Rájás and Ránás of the Hill States with priests. Others of the Bráhmans engage in agriculture. The Rájputs numbered 1849, of whom 359 were Muhammadans; they resemble their hill brethren in Kángra. The Kanets (9090 in number) form the characteristic tribe of Simla, and are popularly supposed to be Rájputs who have lost caste by buying wives and permitting the remarriage of widows. Kolís numbered 3795, and Chamárs 3384. The Muhammadans, classified by race as apart from religion, included—Shaikhs, 3676; Patháns, 1420; Sayyids, 315; and Kashmírís, 215. The Christian population included—Europeans, 2898; Eurasians, 245; and natives, 210. All classes of the hill population are simple-minded, orderly people, truthful in character and submissive to authority, so that they scarcely require to be ruled.

The chief towns (or stations) are SIMLA (13,258 in February 1881), KASAULI (2807), DAGSHAI (3642), SUBATHU (2329), SOLAN, and KALKA. Of the 263 villages scattered over the Simla territory, 242 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, and 15 between two hundred and one thousand; while only 6 contain upwards of one thousand inhabitants.

Agriculture, etc.—The time of sowing and harvesting in the hill country depends very greatly upon the elevation. Cultivation is carried on among all the lower valleys, but even more rudely than in the similar glens of Kángra District. The fields are artificial terraces, built up against the mountain-sides, and sown with maize, pulses, or millet for the autumn, and with wheat for the spring harvest. Poppy, hemp, turmeric, ginger, and potatoes form the principal staples raised for exportation to the plains. The last-named crop, introduced under British rule, has rapidly grown in favour, and now occupies many fresh clearings on the hill-sides in the neighbourhood of Simla. Land is measured, not by superficial extent, but by the quantity of seed which is required to sow it. Most of the cultivators till their own little plots, and rent is practically unknown. Throughout the hills, the employment of hired labour for agricultural purposes is almost unknown, the people combining together to aid one another in special undertakings, and expecting to receive similar help in return whenever they may require it. Wages for artisans and day-labourers in

1883–84 ranged from 9d. to 1s. 6d. for skilled hands, and from 6d. to 9d. for coolies. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1884:—Wheat, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; barley, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 14½ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 9d. per cwt.; best rice, 4½ *sers* per rupee, or 25s. 5d. per cwt.

Commerce, Communications, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the *bázárs* of SIMLA, which forms a considerable entrepôt for the produce of the hill tracts. RAMPUR, on the Sutlej, has also some importance as a depôt for the shawl-wool (*pashm*) brought in by the mountaineers of Spiti and of Chinese Tartary. Part of it is worked up on the spot into coarse shawls, of the kind now made also at Ludhiána and Amritsar (Umritsur), and known as Rámpur *chadars;* but the greater part is bought up by merchants for exportation to British India. The hill paths are so steep that most of the wool is brought down on the backs of the sheep, which are then sheared, and laden with grain for the return journey. The Rámpur fair, on the 10th and 11th of November, attracts a large number of hillmen and of traders from the plains. The main roads of the Simla Hills are those which lead from Kálka to Simla, and from Simla towards Rámpur and Chíni on the Tibetan border. Only small portions of these, however, lie actually within British territory. The old road from Kálka to Simla, *viâ* Kasauli and Subáthu, is practicable for horses, mules, ponies, or cattle, but not for wheeled conveyances. The distance by this route is 41 miles, and the journey can be performed by relays of ponies in eight hours. The new cart-road takes a more circuitous route, *viâ* Dagshai and Solan. The distance amounts to 58 miles, and two-wheeled carts traverse the whole distance in about nine or ten hours. All the heavy traffic between Simla and the plains passes by this route. Staging bungalows have been built on all the roads at frequent intervals. A line of telegraph follows the old road, with stations at Kálka, Kasauli, and Simla.

Administration.—The Simla Hill States are under the superintendence of the Deputy Commissioner of Simla, subordinate to the Commissioner at Ambála (Umballa). The total imperial revenue of the British District amounted in 1883–84 to £15,259, of which sum the land-tax contributed £1360. The other items of importance were stamps and excise. The number of civil and revenue judges in the same year was 8, and the number of magistrates 7. The regular and municipal police force numbered 280 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 man to every 153 of the population. The Simla jail contained in 1883–84 a total of 172 prisoners, with a daily average of 20. Including the Lawrence Military Asylum for soldiers' children, there were 1263 children receiving education in 1883–84, in 29 Government aided or inspected schools; besides 10 indigenous village schools, with about 120 pupils. The educational establishments include Bishop

Cotton's School, a District School, Roman Catholic Female Orphanage, Punjab Girls' School, Mayo Industrial Girls' School, and American Presbyterian Mission at Subáthu. The Lawrence Military Asylum, established in 1852, stands upon the crest of a hill facing Kasauli, from which it is distant by road 3 miles. The only municipality is that of SIMLA.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Simla Hills is admirably adapted to the European constitution, and the District has therefore been selected as the site of numerous sanitaria and cantonments. The average mean temperature at Simla for each month of the year over a period of ten years ending in 1881 is as follows:—January, 40·2° F.; February, 41·8°; March, 49·2°; April, 58·7°; May, 63·5°; June, 67·6°; July, 64·3°; August, 63·1°; September, 61·3°; October, 55·6°; November, 48·7°; December, 44·7° F. Mean annual average, 54·9°. The average annual rainfall amounts to 70·42 inches, according to a calculation made in 1881 upon observations extending over twenty years, distributed as follows:—January to May, 15·96 inches; June to September, 52·27 inches; October to December, 2·19 inches.

Cholera visited Simla, Kasauli, Subáthu, and Dagshai in 1857, 1867, 1872, and 1875, though one or other station escaped in each visitation. In 1857, the death-rate among Europeans from cholera was 3·5 per thousand, and in 1867, 4·2 per thousand. The registered death-rate of Simla in 1883 was 18 per thousand. Goitre, leprosy, and stone are reported to be prevailing endemic diseases, and syphilis is said to be very common amongst the hill people. The only disease usually contracted by Europeans is that known as hill diarrhœa, a very troublesome form of the ailment. Government maintains three charitable dispensaries—at Simla, Kasauli, and Dagshai. In 1883 they gave relief to a total number of 16,185 persons, of whom 655 were in-patients. In 1885, a large first-class hospital, with special wards for European patients, was opened in Simla. [For further information regarding Simla, see the *Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Simla District*, by Colonel E. G. Wace (Calcutta, 1884); also the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government.]

Simla.—*Tahsíl* of Simla District, Punjab; consisting of the two detached *parganás* of Simla and Barauli. Area, 4 square miles. Population (1881) 33,098, namely, males 22,739, and females 10,359. Hindus number 22,753; Muhammadans, 6804; Sikhs, 200; and 'others,' nearly all Christians, 3341. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £662. The administrative staff, including the head-quarters officers, comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 2 Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners, Judge of Small Cause Court, *tahsíldár*, and one honorary magistrate. These officers preside over 5 civil and 6 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular and municipal police, 124 men.

Simla.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Simla District, Punjab; chief sanitarium and summer capital of British India. Situated on a transverse spur of the Central Himálayan system, in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 77° 11′ E. Mean elevation above sea-level, 7084 feet. Distant from Ambála (Umballa) 78 miles; from Kálka, at the foot of the hills, by cart-road, 58 miles. Population in January 1868, 7656; in July 1869, at the beginning of the season, 14,848, of whom 1434 were Europeans and 13,414 natives. In February 1881, at the time when the population of the station was at its lowest, the Census returned the population at 13,258, namely, males 9881, and females 3377. Hindus numbered 8377; Muhammadans, 3153; Sikhs, 164; Jains, 14; and 'others,' nearly all Christians, 1550. In August and September, when the season is at its height, the population considerably exceeds this number. The municipal income, which in 1875–76 was only £5281, had by 1884–85 increased to £20,391.

A tract of land, including part of the hill now crowned by the station, was retained by the British Government at the close of the Gúrkha war in 1815–16. Lieutenant Ross, Assistant Political Agent for the Hill States, erected the first residence, a thatched wooden cottage, in 1819. Three years afterwards, his successor, Lieutenant Kennedy, built a permanent house. Officers from Ambála and neighbouring stations quickly followed the example, and in 1826 the new settlement had acquired a name. A year later, Lord Amherst, the Governor-General, after completing his progress through the North-West, on the conclusion of the successful Bhartpur campaign, spent the summer at Simla. From that date, the sanitarium rose rapidly into favour with the European population of Northern India. Year after year, irregularly at first, but as a matter of course after a few seasons, the seat of Government was transferred for a few weeks in every summer from the heat of Calcutta to the cool climate of the Himálayas. Successive Governors-General resorted with increasing regularity to Simla during the hot weather. Situated in the recently annexed Punjab, it formed an advantageous spot for receiving the great chiefs of Northern and Western India, numbers of whom annually come to Simla to pay their respects to the British Suzerain. It also presented greater conveniences as a starting-point for the Governor-General's cold-weather tour than Calcutta, which is situated in the extreme south-east corner of Bengal. At first only a small staff of officials accompanied the Governor-General to Simla; but since the administration of Sir John Lawrence (1864), Simla has practically been the summer capital of the Government of India, with its secretariats and head-quarters establishments, unless during exceptional seasons of famine on the plains, as in 1874.

Under these circumstances, the station grew with extraordinary rapidity. From 30 houses in 1830, it increased to upwards of 100 in

1841, and 290 in 1866. In February 1881, the number of occupied houses was 1141. At present, the bungalows extend over the whole length of a considerable ridge, which runs east and west in a crescent shape, with its concave side pointing southward. The extreme ends of the station lie at a distance of 6 miles from one another. Eastward, the ridge culminates in the peak of Jako, over 8000 feet in height, and nearly 1000 feet above the average elevation of the station. Woods of *deodar*, oak, and rhododendron clothe its sides, while a tolerably level road, 5 miles long, runs round its base. Another grassy height, known as Prospect Hill, of inferior elevation to Jako, and devoid of timber, closes the western extremity of the crescent. The houses cluster thickest upon the southern slopes of Jako, and of two other hills lying near the western end. The Viceregal Lodge, formerly named Peterhoff, stands upon one of the latter; while the other is crowned by a large building erected for an observatory, but now used as an ordinary residence. A new and more commodious Viceregal residence is now (1886) in course of erection on the Observatory hill, a little to the west of the present Government House. The church stands at the western base of Jako, below which, on the south side of the hill, the native *bázár* cuts off one end of the station from the other. The eastern portion bears the name of Chota Simla, while the most western extremity is known as Boileauganj. A beautiful northern spur, running at right angles to the main ridge, and still clothed with oak and old rhododendron trees, has acquired the complimentary designation of Elysium. Three and a half miles from the western end, a battery of artillery occupies the detached hill of Jutogh. The exquisite scenery of the neighbourhood has been described in the article on SIMLA DISTRICT.

The public institutions include the Bishop Cotton School, the Punjab Girls' School, the Mayo Industrial Girls' School, a Roman Catholic convent, a hospital, a dispensary, and a handsome Town Hall now (1886) approaching completion. The Government buildings comprise a District court-house and treasury, *tahsílí* and police office, post-office, telegraph station, etc. Until recently, the various public offices were located in ordinary private houses, in many cases widely distant from each other. Since 1884, the offices of the Imperial Government have been concentrated in blocks of handsome buildings, centrally situated, and constructed at a cost of upwards of half a million sterling.

The commerce of the town consists mainly in the supply of neces saries to the summer visitors and their dependants; but a brisk export trade exists in opium, *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp), fruits, nuts, and shawl-wool, collected from the neighbouring hills, or brought in from beyond the border *viâ* Rámpur. Numerous European shops supply the minor wants of visitors, most of them being branches

of Calcutta firms. The station has three English banks, a club, and several churches; and two European breweries are situated in the valley below. The great deficiency of Simla lies in its inadequate water-supply. A water-supply by means of pipes supplies Simla with water from the Mahásu range; but the constantly increasing population puts a strain upon the works which they are at times scarcely able to bear, and a further extension of the works, by the construction of additional reservoirs, is now well advanced towards completion. The springs are few in number, and several of them run dry during the summer months, when the demand for water is greatest.

Simla Hill States.—A collection of twenty-three Native States surrounding the sanitarium of Simla; bounded on the east by the high wall of the Himálayas; on the north-west by the mountains of Spiti and Kúlu belonging to the District of Kángra, and lower down by the Sutlej, separating them from the State of Sukét and Kángra proper; on the south-west by the plains of Ambála; on the north-east by the Dehrá Dún and the Native State of Garhwál. They extend between the parallels of lat. 30° 20′ and 32° 5′ N., and long. 76° 30′ and 79° 1′ E. They are controlled by the Superintendent of Hill States in subordination to the Commissioner of Ambála. The table on the opposite page gives a few of the leading statistics regarding them.

The mountains of the Simla States form a continuous series of ranges ascending from the low hills which bound the plains of Ambála to the great central chain of the Eastern Himálayas. This central chain terminates a few miles south of the Sutlej in the most northern of the States, that of Bashahr (Bassáhir). The same State is broken on its northern frontier by spurs from the snowy hills which separate it from Spiti, and on the east by similar spurs from the range by which it is shut off from Chinese Tartary. Starting from the termination of the Central Himálayas, a transverse range—the last to the south of the Sutlej—runs south-west throughout the length of the Simla States, forming the watershed between the Sutlej and the Jumna—in other words, between the Indus and the Ganges. A few miles north-east of Simla, it divides into two main branches, one following the line of the Sutlej in a north-west direction, and the other continuing south-east, until, at a few miles north of Subáthu, it meets at right angles the mountains of the Outer or Sub-Himálayan system, which have a direction parallel to the Central Himálayas, *i.e.* from north-east to north-west. It is upon this branch that the sanitarium of Simla lies.

South and east of Simla, the hills lying between the Sutlej and the Tons, the principal feeder of the Jumna, centre in the great Chor mountain, 11,982 feet high, itself the termination of a minor chain that branches off southwards from the main Simla range.

[*Continued on page* 500.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF THE SIMLA HILL STATES.
(*According to the Census of* 1881.)

NAME OF STATE.	Area in Square Miles.	Towns and Villages.	Houses.	POPULATION.			Density of Population per Square Mile.	Estimated Revenue.	Tribute.
				Total Population.	Males.	Females.			
								£	£
Sirmur (Náhan),	1,077	2,069	21,562	112,371	63,305	49,066	104	21,000	...
Bilàspur (Kahlur),	448	1,073	9,625	86,546	47,133	39,413	193	10,000	800
Bashahr (Bassáhir),	3,320	836	8,533	64,345	33,019	31,326	19	5,000	394
Hindur (Nálágarh),	252	331	10,246	53,373	29,082	24,291	212	9,000	500
Sukét,	474	220	8,658	52,484	29,280	23,204	109	10,000	1,100
Keunthál,	116	838	6,318	31,154	17,329	13,825	269	6,000	...
Bághal,	124	346	1,446	20,633	11,036	9,597	166	6,000	360
Jabbal,	288	472	3,051	19,196	10,605	8,591	67	3,000	252
Bhajji	96	327	582	12,106	6,720	5,386	126	2,300	144
Kumharsen,	90	254	1,445	9,515	4,920	4,595	106	1,000	200
Mailog,	48	222	626	9,169	4,966	4,203	191	1,000	144
Balsan,	51	152	1,263	5,190	2,878	2,312	102	700	108
Baghat,	36	178	1,954	8,339	4,957	3,382	222	800	60
Kuthar,	7	150	863	3,648	2,020	1,628	521	500	100
Dhámi,	26	214	688	3,322	1,776	1,546	128	800	72
Taroch,	67	44	538	3,216	1,850	1,366	48	600	29
Sangri,	16	105	435	2,593	1,440	1,153	162	100	...
Kunhiar,	8	66	440	1,923	1,017	906	241	400	18
Bija,	4	33	263	1,158	649	509	289	100	18
Mángal,	12	33	209	1,060	583	477	88	70	7
Rawai,	3	18	133	752	426	326	251	...	...
Darkuti,	5	8	92	590	295	295	118	60	...
Dádhi,	1	10	44	170	98	72	170	...	...
Total,	6,569	7,999	79,014	502,853	275,384	227,469	77	78,430	4,306

Continued from page 498.]

The mountain system of these States (excluding Bashahr (Bassáhir) may be thus mapped out roughly into three portions:—(1) The Chor mountain, and spurs radiating from it, occupying the south-east corner; (2) the Simla range, extending from the central Himálayas to the neighbourhood of Sabáthu; (3) the mountains of the Sub-Himálayan series, running from north-east to north-west, and forming the boundary of the Ambála plains.

The last-mentioned group may be sub-divided into the Sub-Himálayas proper, and an outer range, corresponding to the Siwálik hills of Hoshiárpur on the one side, and of the Gangetic Doáb on the other. The Sub-Himálayan and the Siwálik ranges form parallel lines, having between them an open space of varying width. In Náhan this open space is known as the Khiárda Dún, a broad and well-cultivated valley. The corresponding Dún in Nálágarh is still more open, and is also richly cultivated.

The wilder parts of Bashahr (Bassáhir) beyond the Sutlej are thus described by Sir H. Davies:—

'Immediately to the south of Spiti and Láhul is the district of Kunáwár, which forms the largest sub-division of the Bashahr principality, and consists of a series of rocky and precipitous ravines, descending rapidly to the bed of the Sutlej. The district is about 70 miles long by 40 and 20 broad at its northern and southern extremities respectively. In middle Kunáwár the cultivated spots have an average elevation of 7000 feet. The climate is genial, being beyond the influence of the periodical rains of India; and the winters are comparatively mild. Upper Kunáwár more resembles the Alpine region of Tibet. Grain and fuel are produced abundantly; the poppy also flourishes. The Kunáwárís are probably of Indian race, though in manners and religion they partially assimilate to the Tibetans. The people of the north are active traders, proceeding to Leh for *charas*, and to Gardokh for shawl-wool, giving in exchange money, clothes, and spices. The mountain paths are scarcely practicable for laden mules, and merchandise is carried chiefly on the backs of sheep and goats.'

The principal rivers by which the drainage of these hills is effected are the Sutlej, the Pabar, the Giri or Giri Gangá, the Gambhar, and the Sarsa.

The Sutlej enters Bashahr State from Chinese territory by a pass between two peaks, the northern of which is 22,183 feet above sea-level, and flows south-east through Bashahr, receiving the drainage from the Central Himálayas on the one side and the Spiti hills on the other, till it reaches the border of Kúlu, a few miles above the town of Rámpur. From this point it forms the western boundary of the Simla States, until, shortly before reaching the border of Kángra proper, it turns southwards,

and passes through the State of Biláspur, which it divides into two nearly equal portions. It is crossed by bridges at Wangtu, and at Lauri below Kotgarh. In Biláspur small boats are employed on the river: elsewhere inflated skins are used to effect a passage. The river is not fordable at any point. Its principal feeders in Bashahr are the Baspa from the south, and the Spiti from the north.

The Pabar, which is one of the principal feeders of the Tons, and therefore of the Jumna, rises in the State of Bashahr, having feeders on the southern slopes both of the Central Himálayas and the transverse Simla range. It flows southwards, and, passing into Garhwál, there joins the Tons.

The Giri, or Giri Gangá, rises in the hills north of the Chor, and collecting the drainage of the whole tract between that mountain and the Simla range, flows south-west until, meeting the line of the Outer Himálayas, it turns sharply to the south-east, and, passing through the whole length of the State of Náhan, empties itself into the Jumna about 10 miles below the junction of that river with the Tons. Its principal feeder is the Ashmi, or Assan river, which rises near Mahásu, in the Simla range, and, after receiving a considerable contribution from the eastern face of the hill upon which Simla station stands, joins the Giri just at the point where that river turns south-east.

The Gambhar rises in the Dagshai hill, and running north-east past Subáthu, receives the Blini and several other streams, which rise in the hills to the south of Simla station, and, still continuing its course north-east, empties itself into the Sutlej about 8 miles below the town of Biláspur.

The Sarsa collects the drainage of the Dún of Nálágarh.

Of these streams, the Pabar and Giri Gangá are of considerable volume. Of the rest, except the Sarsa, all are perennial, retaining a small supply of water even in the winter months, and swelling to formidable torrents during the rainy season. The Pabar alone is fed from perennial snow.

Further information regarding the Simla Hill States will be found in the separate articles on each, in their alphabetical order.

Simráon.—Ruined town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated partly in Nepál territory, the frontier line passing through the walls. The remains of the fort are in the form of a square, surrounded by an outer wall 14 miles in circumference, and by an inner one of only 10. Inside are scattered the ruins of large buildings. The Isrá tank measures 333 yards along one side, and 210 along the other. The portions of the palaces and temples left standing disclose some finely carved basements, with a superstructure of bricks. Twenty idols have been extricated, many, however, being much mutilated. The citadel is situated to the north, and the palace in the centre of the town; but

both only exist as mounds, covered with trees and jungle. Tradition says that Simráon was founded by Nánaupá Deva in 1097 A.D. Six of his dynasty reigned with much splendour; but the last of the line, Hári Singh Deo, was driven out in 1322 by the Muhammadans.

Simrauta.—*Parganá* in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidargarh, on the east by Inhauna, on the south by Rái Bareli, and on the west by Kumhráwán and Hardoi. Area, 97·4 square miles, or 62,337 acres, of which 40·1 square miles, or 26,698 acres, are under cultivation. Population (1881) 52,480, namely, males 25,529, and females 26,951. Government land revenue, £6171, or at the rate of 3s. 11¾d. per arable acre. Of the 73 villages comprising the *parganá*, 50 are held under *tálukdárí*, 22 under *zamíndárí*, and 1 under *pattidárí* tenure. Kanhpuria Rájputs are the principal landed proprietors, owning 35 of the *tálukdárí* villages.

Sinawan. — *Tahsíl* in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab.—*See* SANAWAN.

Sinchal Pahár. — Long undulating mountain spur in Dárjíling District, Bengal, stretching gradually down to the Tísta (Teesta), from the top of which, in lat. 26° 59′ N., and long. 88° 20′ 5″ E., at a height of 8607 feet above the sea-level, Mount Everest is just visible. This hill is the loftiest mountain in the vicinity of Dárjíling station; its two peaks are locally known as the Bará and Chhotá Durbín. Their summits are covered with grass, and their sides are clothed with forest trees, bamboos, ferns, and scrub jungle. There were formerly barracks for a European regiment on the hill, but they have been abandoned for some years in favour of the lower site at Jallapahár.

Sinchulá.—Hill range in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; forming the boundary between British territory and Bhután. Its average elevation is from 4000 to a little over 6000 feet, the highest peak, Renígango (lat. 26° 47′ 30″ N., long. 89° 37′ 15″ E.), being 6222 feet above sea-level. The hills run generally in long even ridges, thickly wooded from base to summit; but at places the summits bristle up into bare crags from 200 to 300 feet. From Chhotá Sinchulá (5695 feet high) a magnificent view is obtained over the whole of the Baxá Dwár. In the distance are seen large green patches of cultivation in the midst of wide tracts of brown grass and reed jungle, the cultivated spots being dotted with homesteads; in the foreground, near the hills, are dense *sál* and other tree forests, the whole being intersected by numerous rivers and streams. The Sinchulá range can nearly everywhere be ascended by men and by beasts of burden, but not by wheeled vehicles of any description.

Sind (*Scinde*).—A Province of British India, forming a Commissionership under the Governor of Bombay; lying between 23° and 28° 40′ N. lat., and between 66° 50′ and 71° E. long. The Province of

Sind forms the extreme north-western portion of the Bombay Presidency, consisting of the lower valley and the delta of the Indus. It is bounded on the north by Balúchistán, the Punjab, and Baháwalpur State; on the east by the Native States of Jaisalmer and Jodhpur in Rájputána; on the south by the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh) and the Arabian Sea; and on the west by the territories of the Khán of Khelát. The Province of Sind consists of two classes of territory—(1) the five British Districts within the Province, and (2) the Native State of Khairpur. The aggregate area of the five British Districts was returned in 1881 at 48,014 square miles, or 38·55 per cent. of the area of the British territory of the Bombay Presidency; the total population at 2,413,823, or only 14·67 per cent. of the population of the Bombay Presidency. The Native State of Khairpur has an area of 6109 square miles, and a population (1881) of 129,153. Including Khairpur State, the Province of Sind contains an area of 54,123 square miles, and population (1881) of 2,542,976 souls. The administrative headquarters are at the city of KARACHI (Kurrachee), but the ancient capital of HAIDARABAD still ranks among the populous towns of the Province. The following table exhibits the area, population, etc., of Sind according to the Census of 1881:—

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF SIND.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Houses.	POPULATION.			Density of Population per Square Mile.
				Total Population.	Males.	Females.	
UNDER BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.							
Karáchí, ...	14,115	723	87,059	478,688	265,988	212,700	33·9
Haidarábád, . . .	9,030	1105	150,488	754,624	407,243	347,381	83·3
Shikárpur, . . .	10,001	1373	137,702	852,986	461,033	391,953	85·2
Thar and Párkar, .	12,729	73	36,412	203,344	112,400	90,944	15·9
Upper Sind Frontier,	2,139	143	21,923	124,181	70,166	54,015	58·0
Total, . .	48,014	3417	433,584	2,413,823	1,316,830	1,096,993	50·3
NATIVE STATE.							
Khairpur, . . .	6,109	...	25,720	129,153	70,716	58,407	21·1
GRAND TOTAL, .	54,123	...	459,304	2,542,976	1,387,576	1,155,400	47·0

The following account of Sind, and the articles on places within that Province, are mainly condensed from Mr. A. W. Hughes' excellent and elaborate *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind* (London, 1876, second edition).

Physical Aspects.—Almost every portion of the great alluvial tract of Sind has at some time or other formed a channel for the river Indus itself, or one of its many branches. The main central stream of North-Western India, after collecting into its bed the waters of the five Punjab rivers, has deposited near its debouchure into the Arabian Sea a vast mass of deltaic matter, through which it flows by several shifting channels to join the sea on the southern border of the Province. In every direction, traces of ancient river beds may be discovered crossing the country like elevated dikes; for the level of the land, as in all other deltaic regions, is highest at the river bank. The Indus brings down from the turbid hill torrents a greater quantity of detritus than can be carried forward by its diminished velocity in the plain, and hence a constant accumulation of silt takes place along its various beds, raising their level above that of the surrounding country, and incidentally affording an easy opportunity of irrigation by side channels drawn from the central river.

The only elevations deserving the name of mountains occur in the Kirthar range, which separate Sind from Balúchistán, and attain in places a height of more than 7000 feet above sea-level. They first touch the Sind frontier about the 28th parallel of north latitude, and form the British boundary for 120 miles. Thenceforward they sink considerably in altitude, forming the lesser chain of the Pab hills, which after a length of 90 miles in a southerly direction terminate on the sea-coast in the promontory of Cape Monze. Their average elevation does not rise above 2000 feet. Among the valleys and ravines of the Pab range flows the river Hab, the only permanent stream in Sind, except the Indus and its tributaries. The wild and rocky tract of KOHISTAN, in the western portion of Karachí District, forms almost the only remaining exception to the general flatness of the Province. Another offshoot of the Kirthar chain, however, known as the Lakki range, extends in a barren mass eastward into the Sehwán Sub-division, and presents evident marks of volcanic origin in its frequent hot springs and sulphurous exhalations. A few insignificant limestone ranges intersect the Indus valley, on one of which, known as the Ganjo hills, with an elevation of only 100 feet, stands the Talpur capital of HAIDARABAD. A second small chain, running in a north-westerly direction from the neighbourhood of Jaisalmer, attains towards the Indus a height of 150 feet, and forms the rocks on which are perched the towns of ROHRI and Sukkur, as well as the island fortress of BUKKUR (Bakhar).

The plain country comprises a mixed tract of dry desert and alluvial plain. The finest and most productive region lies in the neighbourhood of Shikárpur and Lárkhána, where a long narrow island extends for 100 miles from north to south, enclosed on one side by the river Indus, and on the other by the Western Nára. Another great alluvial tract, with an average width of 70 or 80 miles, stretches eastward from the Indus to the Eastern Nára. The Indus appears at one time to have spread its fertilizing waters through the wide waste at present known as the Eastern Desert, in the District of Thar and Párkar. Vestiges of ancient towns still stud the treeless expanse, and dry watercourses intersect it in every part. Sandhills abound near the eastern border, shifting under the influence of each prevailing wind. Large tracts rendered sterile for want of irrigation also occur in many other parts of Sind. Among them the most noticeable is the Pat, or desert of Shikárpur, commencing 30 miles west of that town, and stretching to the foot of the Bolán Pass, and formed from the clay deposited by the Bolán, the Nári, and other mountain torrents of the Kirthar range.

The scenery of Sind naturally lacks variety or grandeur, and its monotony renders it tame and uninteresting. Nothing can be more dreary to a stranger approaching the shore than the low and flat coast, entirely devoid of trees and shrubs. Even among the hills of Kohistán, where fine rocky scenery abounds, the charm of foliage is almost totally wanting, owing to the volcanic nature of the rock. In the Thar and Párkar District, in the eastern portions of Khairpur State, and in the Sub-division of Rohri, the *registhán* or desert tract consists of nothing but sandhills, many of which, however, derive picturesqueness from their bold outline, and are sometimes even fairly wooded. The various ranges of sandhills succeed one another like vast waves.

Lakes are rare, the largest being the MANCHHAR in the Sehwán Sub-division, formed by an expansion of the Western Nára. During the inundation season it measures 20 miles in length, and covers an area of about 180 square miles. At the same period, the flood-hollows (*dandhs*) of the Eastern Nára form pretty lakelets; but in spite of their great beauty they are seldom visited, as the miasma renders them dangerous places in which to encamp.

The alluvial strip which borders either bank of the Indus for a distance of 12 miles, though superior to every other part of Sind in soil and productiveness, can lay no claim to picturesque beauty. Even here, however, extensive forests of Acacia arabica (*babúl*) in many places skirt the reaches of the river for miles together. Near the town of SEHWAN, the Lakhi range forms an abrupt escarpment toward the river in a perpendicular face of rock 600 feet high. But the finest views in the Province are those which embrace the towns of Sukkur and Rohri, and the island fortress of Bukkur, with its lofty

castellated walls, lying in the river between them. All three crown the range of limestone hills through which the Indus has here cut its way, and the minarets and houses, especially in Rohri, overhang the stream from a towering height above. A little to the south of Bukkur, again, lies the green island of Sádh Bela with its sacred shrine, while groves of date-palm and acacia stud the banks of the Indus on either side.

The soil of Sind consists of a plastic clay, strongly impregnated with salt. When covered with the floods (*léts*) of the Indus, either by artificial irrigation or through spontaneous change of channel, it quickly assumes the appearance of a rich lowland; and it changes its aspect as quickly to that of an arid desert when the water is once more diverted elsewhere. The land is thus fertile enough in the immediate neighbourhood of the existing river branches to yield two or more crops in the year without manuring. Nevertheless, the soil contains a large admixture of saltpetre; and in Southern Sind, where sand greatly prevails, it is so impregnated with common salt as to produce it in abundance by evaporation, after simply pouring water through its surface.

The extent of forest land is small for a Province of so large an area, only about 625 square miles being covered with woodland, not including those in Khairpur State. The Forest Department has charge of about 90 separate forests, chiefly situated along the banks of the Indus, extending southward from Ghotki to the middle delta. They run in narrow strips, from a quarter of a mile to 2 miles in breadth, and about 3 miles in length. These strips of forest are currently reported to have been constructed as game preserves by the Mírs. Many of them suffer greatly at times from the encroachments of the stream. The floods of 1863 swept away 1000 acres of the Dhárejá forest in Shikárpur District, and a similar misfortune occurred to the forests of Sundarbelo and Sámtia in the two succeeding years.

The indigenous trees consist chiefly of *babúl* (Acacia arabica), *bahan* (Populus euphratica), *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera), and *lai* (Tamarindus indica). The *babúl*, the staple tree of Lower Sind, produces good timber for boat-building and fuel; while its seed-pods supply a food for fattening cattle, its bark is employed for tanning, and its leaves form a favourite fodder of camels and goats. The *bahan*, the commonest tree of Upper Sind, yields a light soft wood for building purposes, from which also are manufactured the celebrated lacquered boxes of Hála and Khánot. The *táli* (Dalbergia Sissoo) grows to some extent in Upper Sind, though it cannot be considered as indigenous to the Province. The delta of the Indus contains no forests, but its shores and inlets abound with low thickets of mangrove trees, whose timber makes a good fuel. The Forest Department has lately intro-

duced several valuable exotics, including the tamarisk, the water-chestnut and the tallow-tree. The revenue from this source has largely increased during the last two decades. In 1883–84, the amount realized by the sale of timber of all descriptions, including firewood, was £28,092. The date-palm (Phœnix sylvestris) ripens its fruit in Sind, while the country also produces excellent apples, being to some extent intermediate in its flora between Hindustán and Khorásán. One-third of the indigenous vegetation is Arabian or Egyptian.

The native fauna includes the tiger, found occasionally in the jungles of Upper Sind, the hyæna, the *gúrkhar* or wild ass, the wolf, fox, wild hog, antelope, hog-deer, and ibex in the western hills, as well as the vulture and several falcons. The flamingo, pelican, stork, crane, and Egyptian ibis frequent the shores of the delta. Bustard, rock-grouse, quail, and partridge occur among the game-birds; while flocks of wild geese, *kulang*, ducks, teal, and curlew cover the lakes and *dandhs* during the cold season. Venomous snakes abound, and yearly cause a large number of deaths. The river fisheries of the Indus and its offshoots not only supply the Province with fresh fish, but afford a considerable export trade in dried *pála*, the *hilsá* of Bengal. Among domestic animals, the camel of the one-humped variety ranks first as a beast of burden, immense numbers being bred in the salt marshes of the Indus. Great herds of buffaloes graze on the swampy tracts of the delta; and *ghí*, made from their milk, forms an important item of export trade. Sheep and goats abound in Upper Sind, on the borders of the Pat in Shikárpur District, and in Thar and Párkar. The horses, though small, are active, hardy, and capable of enduring great fatigue. The Balúchís of Upper Sind pay much attention to the breeding of mares. The Government have introduced English stallions; and horse-breeding is carried on for the purpose of furnishing a superior class of remounts for the cavalry, as well as improving the breed of horses in the country. The bullocks are small in size, and chiefly used for draught or for turning irrigation wheels.

The extreme south-eastern border of Sind is formed by the RANN OF CUTCH (KACHCHH), an immense salt-water waste, with an area of about 9000 square miles. It bounds the District of Thar and Párkar for a distance of nearly 40 miles. Every part of it is devoid of herbage, and a large portion is annually converted into a salt lake from June to November, owing to the influx of the sea at Lakhpat Bandar on the Kori mouth of the Indus, as well as at other places in Cutch (Kachchh) and Káthiáwár. During the remaining six months of the year, after the evaporation of the water, the surface becomes incrusted with salt, while herds of antelopes and wild asses roam over the desert expanse. According to local tradition, a well-tilled plain, irrigated by a branch of the Indus, once covered this portion of the Rann; but either the hand

of man or an earthquake diverted the waters, and the tract has ever since remained a waste of salt. The upper part of the Kori mouth still bears the name of the Purána or ancient stream; and there is little doubt that the Indus once took a more easterly course than at present, and so rendered some portion of the Rann a fertile lowland.

The whole sea-coast of Sind, except the part between Karáchí (Kurrachee) and Cape Monze where the Pab hills approach the shore, is low and flat, and submerged at spring-tides. It consists, in fact, of a series of mud-banks deposited by the Indus, or in a few places of sandhills blown from seaward. The sea near the shore is very shallow, owing to the quantity of mud brought down by the river. A bank extends along the coast from Karáchí to Cutch, about 2 miles from the land, and 3 miles in width, generally dry at low water. This circumstance renders the approach to the shore extremely dangerous for large vessels.

History.—Sind owes its name as well as its existence to the river Indus or Sindhu, a Sanskrit term signifying water; though Muhammadan scholars prefer to derive the word from an eponymic patriarch Sind, the brother of Hind, and son of Nuh or Noah, whose descendants ruled over the country for many generations. Previous to the Arab invasion in 711 A.D., a Hindu dynasty appears to have reigned at Aror, near the present town of Rohri; and their capital, on the bank of the Indus, possessed many fine buildings, with extensive pleasure-gardens. The dominions of the native dynasty stretched, according to local tradition, from Kashmír and Kanauj to Surat and to Omán, besides including the Afghán territories of Kandahár and the Suláimán hills. The names of five kings belonging to this earliest line have been preserved to us, and their reigns are said to have extended over an aggregate of 137 years.

A Bráhman chamberlain to the last of them, by name Chachh, established himself on the throne after his master's death, and left the kingdom to two of his family in succession. But during the reign of his son Dahír, a few peaceful Muhammadan merchants, as the Arab version of the conquest asserts, who had been sent into Sind by the Khálifa Abdúl Málik to purchase female slaves and other articles of lawful commerce, were attacked by robbers, and either made prisoners or killed on the spot. One or two of the injured merchants alone escaped to make their complaints to the Khálifa; and the latter readily embraced so excellent an opportunity of spreading the faith of Islám into the delta of the Indus. He died before the army collected for the purpose could invade Sind; but his son despatched Muhammad Kásim Sakifi to carry out the conquest about 711 A.D.

Muhammad Kásim set out from Shiráz with a large force, and first captured the seaport of Debal, identified by some with MANORA, and by others with TATTA. Thence he marched upon Nerankot, the

modern Haidarábád; and after its capitulation he next took the strong fortress of Sehwán. Returning to Nerankot, the Musalmán leader proceeded to cross the Indus, whose main channel then flowed east of the city, and successfully engaged the army of Rájá Dahír. The native prince was slain at the fort of Ráwar, while his family were carried away prisoners by the conqueror. In 713, Muhammad Kásim arrived at the capital, Aror, which was taken; and then advanced upon MULTAN (in the present Punjab Province), which submitted with an immense treasure. The end of the first great Musalmán conqueror of India remains uncertain; but it seems probable that he was tortured to death with the sanction of Khálifa Suláimán. Sind remained thenceforward, with scarcely a break, in the hands of the Muhammadans.

On the extinction of the Ummayide dynasty of Khálifas (750 A.D.), and the accession of the Abássides, the Indus delta passed to the new rulers, and the power of the Musalmáns began to attract the attention of the native princes on the northern frontier of Hindustán. But the hold of the Khálifas upon this distant Province grew slowly weaker, and became virtually extinct in 871 A.D. Two native kingdoms raised themselves at Múltán and Mánsura. The former comprised the upper valley of the united Indus as far as Aror; the latter extended from that town to the sea, and nearly coincided with the modern Province of Sind. The country was then well cultivated; and Aror, the capital, surrounded by a double wall, is said to have almost equalled Múltán in size, and to have possessed a considerable commerce. The Arab princes apparently derived but a very small revenue from Sind, and left the administration wholly in the hands of natives. Arab soldiers held lands on military tenure, and liberal grants provided for the sacred buildings and institutions of Islám. Commerce was carried on by caravans with Khorásán and Zábulistán, and by sea with China, Ceylon, and Malabar. The Arabs also permitted the native Sindians the free exercise of their own religion to a considerable extent.

When Mahmúd of Ghazní invaded India in 1019, Sind was ruled by a Governor who nominally represented the Khálifa, Kádir Billah Abúl Abbas Ahmad. After the capture of Múltán and Uchh, Mahmúd sent his Wazír, Abdúr Razái, to conquer Sind, which the Wazír accomplished in 1026. But six years later, Ibn Súmar, Governor of Múltán, laid the foundation of the Súmra dynasty in Sind, at first apparently as a titular vassal of the Ghaznevide monarchy. In 1051, however, if not before, the Súmra kings made themselves completely independent, and extended their possessions as far as Nasarpur, 26 miles south-east of Hálá. Under Khafíf, who made Tatta his capital, the dynasty attained its greatest power, and restrained with success the wild tribes of the western frontier. From the death of Khafíf, however, the Súmra dynasty lost its prestige; and in the reign of Urrah Mehl (1351), the Sama tribe, a

body of non-Musalmán immigrants from Cutch (Kachchh), conspired against and killed the Musalmán king, and placed Jám Unar, one of themselves, upon the throne of Sind.

The Samas were either Buddhists or Hindus, and had their capital city at Samanagar on the Indus, identified with the modern town of Sehwán; but they resided chiefly at Tatta or at Samui, under the Makli Hills, 3 miles north-west of the former town. They were undoubtedly Rájputs of the Jadava stock, and they became Muhammadans not earlier than 1391 A.D. Jám Unar, first of the line, reigned three and a half years, but does not seem to have held all Sind under his sway, as the Hákims kept Bukkur and its neighbourhood on behalf of the king of the Turks. Junah, the second king, captured Bukkur, and the Hákims retreated to Uchh. Under his successor, the forces of the King of Delhi retook Bukkur, and carried the Jám and his family as prisoners to Delhi. In 1372, Firoz Tughlak invaded Sind, and compelled the ruling prince to tender a nominal allegiance. The Sama line consisted in all of 15 kings, the last of whom was supplanted by the Arghuns.

The Arghún dynasty traced its origin to Changíz Khán, and commenced its rule in Sind in 1521. The first prince of the line, Sháh Beg Arghun, marching down from Kandahár, defeated the Sama army in 1520, and sacked Tatta, the capital of Jám Firoz Sama. By a subsequent agreement, the Jám retained all Sind between Sukkur and Tatta, while the Sháh took the region north of Lakhi. But the Samas soon after repudiated this agreement; and a battle fought at Talti, near Sehwán, resulted in their utter defeat and the secure establishment of the Arghun power. Sháh Beg afterwards captured the fort of Bukkur, and rebuilt the fortifications with bricks taken from the ancient stronghold of Aror. Just before his death in 1522, he made preparations to attack Gujarát, but did not live to accomplish his purpose. Sháh Beg was not only a bold soldier, but also a learned Musalmán theologian and commentator. His son and successor, Mírza Sháh Husain, finally drove Jám Firoz from Tatta to Cutch, and at length to Gujarát, where he died. Sháh Husain severely punished his subject tribes for internal wars, and sacked the towns of Múltán and Uchh, as well as the fort of Diláwar.

During Sháh Husain's reign, the Mughal Emperor Humáyún, being defeated by the Afghán, Sher Sháh, in 1540 A.D., fled to Sind, where he endeavoured unsuccessfully to take the fort of Bukkur. After a short stay in Jodhpur, Humáyún returned to Sind by way of Umarkot in 1542, and again attempted without success to conquer the country. Sháh Husain died childless in 1554, after a reign of thirty-four years, and with him ended the Arghun dynasty. A short-lived line, the Tarkhán, succeeded for a few years; but in 1592, the Mughal Emperor

Akbar, who was himself born at Umarkot during the flight of his father Humáyún, defeated Mírza Jáni Beg, ruler of Tatta, and united Sind for the first time with the Musalmán Empire of Delhi. The Province was incorporated under Akbar's organization in the Subah of Múltán.

During the flourishing period of the Mughal Empire, the general peace of the great monarchy extended to Sind, and but few historical events of importance occurred for the next century. In the interval, however, between the consolidation of the Empire by Akbar, and the dismemberment which followed on the invasion of Nádir Sháh, the Dáúdputras or sons of Dáúd Khán, rose to distinction. Weavers and warriors by profession, they led a wild and wandering life, at Khánpur, Tarái, and throughout the Sukkur country. After a long and sanguinary conflict with the Mahars, a race of Hindu origin, the Dáúdputras succeeded in establishing their supremacy over Upper Sind, and founded the town of Shikárpur. From the extinction of the native dynasties, Tatta had formed a scene of constant contention between neighbouring governors, till Jahángír put a stop to the strife by appointing removable lieutenants to administer the outlying Provinces of the Empire, and so checked the growth of a hereditary viceroyalty in Sind.

Towards the end of the 17th century, however, another race, closely allied to the Dáúdputras, rose to power in the lower Indus valley. The Kalhoras traced their descent historically to Muhammad of Kambáthá (1204 A.D.), and more mythically to Abbas, the uncle of the Prophet. About 1558, the family rose into notice through the sanctity of one Adam Sháh, the chief of a large sect of mendicants in Chánduka. The Governor of Múltán attacked the religious leader, dispersed his followers, and put to death Adam Sháh himself. The Fakírs descended from the family long lived a life of warfare against the Mughal lieutenants; until at length in 1658, under Názir Muhammad Kalhora, they began successfully to oppose the imperial troops, and to organize themselves into a regular government. At length, about 1701, Yár Muhammad Kalhora, assisted by the Sirai or Talpur tribe, seized upon Shikárpur, where he fixed his court, and obtained from the Emperor Aurangzeb a grant of the Deraját, together with a regular title (Khuda Yár Khán) under the imperial system. By the year 1711, Yár Muhammad had further overrun the Kandiáro and Lárkhána tracts, as well as the country around Sukkur.

On the death of Yár Muhammad Kalhora in 1719, his son Núr Muhammad succeeded to his territories, and conquered the Nhár Sub-division from the Dáúdputras. Sehwán and its dependencies also fell under his rule, and his territory extended from the Múltán border to Tatta. The fort of Bukkur, however, did not come into the possession of the Kalhoras till 1736. With this exception, Núr Muhammad's

authority stretched from the desert to the Balúchí Mountains. During his reign, the Talpur tribe of Balúchís, the last native rulers of Sind, first came into notice in the person of Mír Bahrám, an able officer of the Kalhora kings. When Nádir Sháh, the Persian conqueror, swooped upon Delhi in February 1739, and broke down the decaying Mughal organization, all the Provinces west of the Indus were detached from the Empire and incorporated with the Persian dominions. Tatta and Shikárpur formed part of the territory thus ceded to Nádir Sháh.

Shortly after his return to Kábul, Nádir set out upon a second expedition against Sind and the Punjab, in order to repress his troublesome vassal, Núr Muhammad. Two years earlier, the Kalhora prince had persuaded Sádik Alí, Subahdár of Tatta, to make over that Province in return for a sum of 3 *lákhs;* and this transaction apparently aroused the anger of his new suzerain. On Nádir's approach, Núr Muhammad at first fled to Umarkot, but afterwards surrendered with the loss of Shikárpur and Sibi, which the Sháh made over to the Dáúdputras and Afgháns. An annual tribute of 20 *lákhs*, with the honorary compensations of a high-sounding title (Sháh Kuli Khán), was imposed upon the Kalhora prince.

On Nádir Sháh's death, Sind became tributary in 1748 to Ahmad Sháh Duráni of Kandahár, who conferred on Núr Muhammad the new title of Sháh Nawáz Khán. In 1754, the tribute being in arrears, Ahmad Sháh advanced against Sind, and Núr Muhammad fled to Jaisalmer, where he died. His son, Muhammad Murád Yáb Khán, managed to appease the ruler of Kandahár, and obtained a confirmation of his rank and power. He founded the town of Murádábad. In 1757, his subjects rose against his oppressive government and dethroned him, placing his brother, Ghulám Sháh, upon the throne. The new prince, after two years of internal dissension, made his own position secure; and in 1762 he invaded Cutch (Kachchh), fighting the sanguinary battle of Jhana. Next year he resumed operations against Cutch, and took the seaports of Basta and Lakhpat on the Indus. In 1768 he founded the city of Haidarábád on the ancient site of Nerankot, and made it his capital till his death in 1772. During the early part of his reign, in 1758, the East India Company established a factory at Tatta. Sarfaráz Khán, his son and successor, discouraged the Company's operations, and the factory was eventually withdrawn in 1775. Soon afterwards, the Balúchís deposed the chief, and two years of anarchy followed.

In 1777, Ghulám Nabi Khán, a brother of Ghulám Sháh, succeeded in obtaining the throne. During his reign, Mír Bijar, a Talpur chief, rose in rebellion; and in the battle between them the Kalhora prince lost his life. Abdúl Nabi Khán, his brother, succeeded to the throne,

and put all his relatives to death as a precautionary measure. He then made a compromise with Mír Bijar, retaining the sovereignty for himself, but appointing the Talpur chief as his minister. In 1781, an army from Kandahár invaded Sind, where the tribute remained always in a chronic state of arrears, but Mír Bijar defeated it near Shikárpur. Thereupon, Abdúl Nabi Khán assassinated his too successful general. Abdullá Khán Talpur, son of the murdered man, at once seized upon the government, and the last of the Kalhoras fled to Khelát. Thence he made many unsuccessful efforts to regain his kingdom, and at last re-established himself for a while by the aid of Kandahár. But on his putting to death Abdullá Khán, Mír Fateh Alí, a kinsman of the murdered Talpur, once more expelled him. The Kalhora king made a final effort to recover his throne; but being defeated by Mír Fateh Alí, he fled to Jodhpur, where his descendants still hold distinguished rank. With him ended the dynasty of the Kalhoras.

In 1783, Mír Fateh Alí Khán, first of the Talpur line, established himself as Rais of Sind. He obtained a *firmán* from Sháh Zamán of Kandahár for the government of Sind by the Talpurs. The history of Sind under its new dynasty—generally spoken of as the Talpur Mírs—is rendered very complicated by the numerous branches into which the ruling house split up. Fateh Alí Khán's nephew, Mír Sohráb Khán, settled with his adherents at Rohri; while his son, Mír Tharo Khán, removed to Sháhbandar; and each of them occupied the adjacent country as an independent ruler, throwing off all allegiance to the head of their house at Haidarábád.

The Talpurs thus fell into three distinct branches—the Haidarábád or Sháhdádpur family, ruling in Central Sind; the Mírpur or Manikáni house, descendants of Mír Tharo, ruling at Mírpur; and the Sohrábani line, derived from Mír Sohráb, ruling at Khairpur. Further to increase the complication, Fateh Alí, head of the Haidarábád Mírs, associated with himself in the government his three younger brothers, Ghulám Alí, Karam Alí, and Murad Alí. He then turned his attention to the recovery of Karáchí and Umarkot. The former, alienated to the Governor of Khelát, he recovered in 1792; the latter, held by the Rájá of Jodhpur, the Mírs regained in 1813. In 1801, Mír Fateh Alí died, leaving one son, Sobhdár, and bequeathing his dominions to his three brothers. Of these, Ghulám Alí died in 1811, and left a son, Mír Muhammad; but the two surviving brothers retained the chief power in Haidarábád. Kuram Alí died without issue in 1828; but Murád Alí left two sons, Núr Muhammad and Nasír Khán. Up to 1840, the government of Haidarábád was carried on by these two Mírs, together with their cousins Sobhdár and Muhammad. Mír Núr Muhammad died in 1841, leaving two sons, Sháhdád and Husáin Alí. The Talpur Mírs adorned Haidarábád and its suburb Khudábád with

many handsome buildings, of which their own tombs are the most remarkable.

The first connection of the British with Sind took place as early as 1758, in the matter of the abandoned factory at Tatta. In 1799, a commercial mission was sent to Sind, to conduct business between our Government and the Talpur Mírs, but it ended unsatisfactorily. The agent resided from time to time at Tatta, Sháhbandar, or Karáchí, and endured numerous indignities, until at length he received a peremptory order from the Mírs to quit their territory. The East India Company took no notice of this insult. In 1809, an arrangement was effected between the Mírs and our authorities, mainly for the purpose of excluding Frenchmen from settling in Sind.

In 1825, the Sindi tribe of Khosas made incursions into Cutch, and a military demonstration became necessary as a preventive measure. In 1830, Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Alexander) Burnes, after many delays and threats on the part of the Mírs, was permitted to follow up the course of the Indus, taking with him presents from the King of England to Ranjít Singh at Lahore. The river was then entirely unexplored, and the obvious object of the mission was the collection of information for political purposes. Two years later, Colonel Pottinger concluded a treaty with the Mírs for the advancement of commerce, by which traders and merchants were permitted to use the roads and rivers of Sind, though no Englishman might settle in the country. The Khairpur Mírs ratified this treaty, after their kinsmen at Haidarábád. In 1835, Colonel Pottinger obtained leave to survey the sea-coast of Sind and the delta of the Indus; yet trade did not enter the river, and the Mírs clearly mistrusted the intentions of their powerful neighbours.

In 1838, the first Afghán war necessitated the despatch of British troops to join the main army by way of the Indus, in spite of a clause in the treaty expressly forbidding the employment of the river as a military highway. Lord Auckland considered that so great an emergency overrode the text of the agreement, and declared that those chiefs who showed themselves unwilling to assist the British in such a crisis would be deprived of their possessions. In December of that year, a large force under Sir John Keane landed in Sind, but found itself unable to proceed, owing to the obstacles thrown in its way by the Mírs in supplying stores and carriage. After a threat to march upon Haidarábád, Sir John Keane at length succeeded in continuing his course. Owing to this hostile demeanour, a reserve force was despatched from Bombay in 1839, to take up its station in Sind. The Balúchí garrison at Manora, near Karáchí, endeavoured to prevent it from landing, and the British accordingly found it necessary to occupy that fort.

A treaty was afterwards, in 1839, concluded with the Haidarábád

Mírs, by which they agreed to pay 23 *lákhs* to Sháh Shúja, in commutation of all arrears of tribute due to the Afgháns; to admit the establishment in Sind of a British force not exceeding 5000 men, the expenses being defrayed in part by the Mírs themselves; and finally, to abolish all tolls upon trading boats on the Indus. The Khairpur Mírs concluded a similar treaty, except as regards the subsidy. The English then took possession of the fort of Bukkur, under the terms of the engagement. By careful conciliatory measures, the British representatives secured the tranquillity of the country, so that the steam flotilla navigated the Indus unimpeded. Núr Muhammad, senior Mír, died in 1841, and the Talpur Government passed to his two sons, conjointly with their uncle, Nasír Khán.

In 1842 Sir Charles Napier arrived in Sind, with sole authority over all the territory on the Lower Indus. New conditions were proposed to the Mírs, owing to delay in payment of the tribute, these terms including the cession of Karáchí, Tatta, Sukkur, Bukkur, and Rohri. After some delay and a slight military demonstration, the treaty was signed in February 1843. But the Balúchís composing the Sindian army did not acquiesce in this surrender of independence; and shortly afterwards they attacked the Residency, which stood near the Indus, a few miles from Haidarábád. Major Outram and his small suite, after defending the building for a short time, found themselves compelled to retreat to a steamer then lying in the river. He soon after joined Sir C. Napier's force. On the 17th of February, Napier found the Mír's army, 22,000 strong, posted on the Fuleli river, near MEEANEE (Miáni). He gave them battle with only 2800 men of all arms, and 12 pieces of artillery, and gained a complete and brilliant victory. The Balúchí loss amounted to about 5000 men, while that of the British did not exceed 257, of whom 19 were officers. Shortly after, the chief Mírs of Haidarábád and Khairpur surrendered as prisoners of war, and the fort of Haidarábád was captured, together with the Mírs' treasure, computed at about £1,000,000 sterling. In March, Napier received reinforcements from Sukkur, and went in search of the enemy, with 5000 men. He found the Balúchí army, 20,000 strong, under Sher Muhammad of Mírpur, in a strong position near Dabo. After a desperate resistance, the Sindians fled in disorder, their leader, Sher Muhammad, retreating to the desert. Soon afterwards, our troops occupied Mírpur, Khás, and Umarkot. Sind was declared a conquered country, and annexed to the British dominions.

The Talpur family thus ceased to be a ruling power, after a sovereignty of fifty-three years. The Mírs were removed successively to Bombay, Poona, and Calcutta; but in 1854, Lord Dalhousie allowed them to return to Sind and take up their residence at Haidarábád. Under the Talpurs, the government of Sind consisted of a rude

military feudalism. The Mírs themselves had little education or refinement, and lived in primitive Balúchí simplicity, their extravagant propensities being shown in their fondness for horses, arms, and field sports. Their sole aim was to hoard up wealth, oppose all improvements, and enjoy themselves after their own fashion.

Immediately after the annexation, Sir C. Napier was appointed the first British Governor; while a pension of $3\frac{3}{4}$ *lákhs*, together with lands in *jágír*, was distributed amongst the deposed Mírs. The judicial and revenue systems underwent a speedy remodelling; and the Province was divided into extensive Collectorates. Since the British annexation, the chief events in Sind have consisted of commercial improvements, including especially the immense harbour works at KARACHI, which have rendered the modern capital one of the most important seaports of Western India. Under the Commissionership of Sir Bartle Frere (1851–59), the Province took most important steps in the direction of mercantile progress; and at a later date, the construction of the Indus Valley portion of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, from Karáchí to join the Punjab line at Múltán, has already contributed greatly to the prosperity of the country.

Population.—Sind is a very sparsely populated Province even at the present day. No statistics are available as to the number of inhabitants under its native rulers, though a probable conjecture sets it down in the early part of this century at not more than 1,000,000 persons, or only about 16 to the square mile. A Census taken in 1856, exclusive of the territory of Mír Alí Murád Khán, or Khairpur State, returned the total population at 1,772,367 persons. An accurate enumeration undertaken in 1872 gave the total, again excluding Khairpur territory, at 2,203,177; thus showing a gain of 430,810 persons, or 26 per cent., in the fifteen years. The Census of 1881 disclosed a total population of the British Districts of 2,413,823, showing a further increase of 210,646, or 9·56 per cent., in the nine years between 1872 and 1881.

The main feature of this increase, which is found in every District of the Province, seems to be the influx of foreigners, chiefly from the adjacent territories of Balúchistán and the Punjab. In Karáchí, as in the city of Bombay and other large seaports, the indigenous population is in the minority. A good deal of the increase in the more rural parts of the Province has been attributed to the general development of the people, under the influence of prosperous harvests and improved means of transport to market. A part of the increase, however, is only apparent, and is due to more correct enumeration, especially in the case of females. The rate of increase in the towns has been generally higher than in the surrounding country. Karáchí owes its prosperity to the development of its sea trade, especially since the opening of direct railway communication with Upper India and the western frontier.

Shikárpur has also profited in the same manner, and the trading centre of Sukkur has doubled its population since 1872.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of British Districts, 48,014 square miles. Population, 2,413,823 (males 1,316,830, and females 1,096,993); number of towns 12, and of villages 3405; number of occupied houses 433,584, and of unoccupied 149,701. From these the following averages are deduced:—Persons per square mile, 50·3; towns and villages per square mile, 0·07; houses per square mile, 12·0; persons per house, 5·5. The population, which is extremely scattered in all parts of the Province, gathers thickest in Shikárpur, 85·2 per square mile; and Haidarábád, 83·3 per square mile. In the Frontier District of Upper Sind, the average falls to 58. The extensive District of Karáchí, though it contains the capital town and largest commercial centre, has but 33·9 persons to the square mile; in Khairpur State, the average is only 21·1; and in the wide but desert expanse of the Thar and Párkar District, it does not exceed 15·9.

Classified according to sex, the native population in 1881 amounted to—males 1,314,391, and females 1,096,026. The European element was represented by 3127 persons, namely, males 2279, and females 848. Eurasians numbered 279, namely, males 160, and females 119. Classified according to sex and age, of the entire population, exclusive of Khairpur State, there were returned—under 15 years, boys 546,005, and girls 441,574; total children, 987,579, or 40·9 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 770,825, and females 655,419; total adults, 1,426,244, or 59·1 per cent.

Religion and Caste.—Classified by religion, the Muhammadans number 1,887,204, or 78·5 per cent. of the total population; Hindus, 305,079, or 12·6 per cent.; Sikhs, 126,976, or 5·3 per cent.; non-Hindu aborigines, 86,040, or 3·5 per cent.; Christians, 6082; Jains, 1191; Pársís, 1063; Jews, 153; Brahmos, 26; and Buddhists, 9. The Muhammadans, who form the bulk of the inhabitants, fall naturally into two classes—the native Sindís, and the naturalized tribes, such as Sayyids, Afgháns, Balúchís, Africans, and Khwájas. The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, consisted of Sindís, 1,273,761; Balúchís, 409,012; Sayyids, 37,734; Shaikhs, 32,888; Patháns, 14,729; and 'others,' 119,080. According to sect, the Muhammadans were returned—Sunnís, 1,858,648; Shiás, 28,093; Wahábís, 174; and 'others,' 289.

The Sindís represent the original Hindu population, converted to Islám under the Ummayide Khálifas. They are taller and more robust than the natives of Bengal, of dark complexion, and muscular frame. Their detractors represent them as idle, apathetic, and cowardly, addicted to drunkenness, and personally dirty; while their disinclina-

tion to truthfulness has given them a bad name amongst neighbouring tribes. On the other hand, they are quiet and inoffensive, kindly, faithful, and of unimpeachable honesty. In religion they are Sunnís. The Sindís are sub-divided into about 300 clans or tribes, but the caste system does not exist among them. The Sindí language belongs to the pure Neo-Sanskritic group, and contains far less of alien admixture than any of the cognate tongues. It stands closer to the old Prákrit than does either Maráthí, Hindí, or Bengalí; and it has preserved an immense number of grammatical forms which have dropped out of the other vernaculars. Three dialects of Sindí are distinguished in Upper and Lower Sind and in the Thar, respectively. The literature of the language consists mainly of translations from the Arabic, chiefly theological, and a few rude national ballads.

Among the races of foreign origin, the Sayyids were patronized by the Kalhora princes, who granted them several considerable estates; but the Talpurs proved less liberal. The Afgháns came originally from Khorásán, and now reside in the neighbourhood of Haidarábád and in Northern Sind. They far surpass the Sindís in personal appearance, strength, and courage. The Balúchís, wild mountaineers from the barren hills to the westward, settled in Sind under the Talpur dynasty, and received large *jágírs* in return for military services. They are fairer, more powerful, and hardier than the Sindís; they have genuine though peculiar ideas of honour; and they are brave soldiers, with a large share of national pride. On the other hand, they are grossly illiterate, rough in manners, drunken and debauched, violent and revengeful, and wholly addicted to coarse amusements. In religion they belong to the Sunní sect, though the Talpur Mírs, on their arrival in Sind, adopted the Shiá persuasion. About 80 clans are settled in the plains. The Africans represent the slaves of Sind, brought over by way of Maskat from Zanzibar or Abyssinia. Emancipated at the British annexation, they still marry, as a rule, within their own race, and remain inmates of their former masters' houses. A small body of Memons gather around Haidarábád, Sehwán, and Karáchí. They are doubtless Hindus by origin, who became Musalmáns and emigrated to Sind during the Kalhora rule. They engage in trade, agriculture, and breeding camels. Many of them possess great learning, and they have done more than any other class to introduce religious knowledge into the Province. The Khwájas, a numerous body in Karáchí, are heterodox Musalmáns, carrying the Shiá doctrines to an extreme.

The Hindus occupy in Sind a position analogous to that of the Musalmáns in Hindustan. Few of them, apparently, belong to native families which have survived the long Muhammadan domination; they have generally immigrated from the Punjab in recent times, and retain their distinctive names, features, and religion. The Bráhmans comprise

two classes, which do not intermarry; and they are mainly confined to the large towns. One class, called *amils*, formed the principal clerks and writers in the time of the Mírs, and now of the British Government. They imitate the Muhammadans in their dress and manner of wearing the hair; and are in all a most intelligent class of the community. The lower castes are essentially similar to their brethren in the Punjab. The Sikhs reside in considerable numbers at Haidarábád, Sehwán, and other towns. The Census of 1881 subdivided the Hindus by caste and social distinctions into—Bráhmans, 13,531; Rájputs, 10,534; Lohánás, 211,926; and 'others,' 69,088.

Among the Christians of the Province, 3198 were Roman Catholics, 2198 Protestants, and 686 of other Christian creeds. Adopting another principle of division, there were 3127 Europeans, 2676 native Christians, and 279 Eurasians.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 distributed the male population into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military officials of every kind, 19,242; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 18,926; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 31,239; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 476,573; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 147,225; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 623,625.

Of the 3417 towns and villages of Sind, 985 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 848 between two and five hundred; 978 between five hundred and one thousand; 431 between one and two thousand; 97 between two and three thousand; 48 between three and five thousand; 22 between five and ten thousand; 3 between ten and fifteen thousand; 4 between twenty and fifty thousand; and 1 above fifty thousand.

KARACHI, the capital city, had a total population in 1881 of 73,560 persons; but its commercial importance is far greater than this total would seem to imply. SHIKARPUR, the great depôt of transit trade with the Bolán Pass and Khorásán, had 42,496; HAIDARABAD, the Talpur capital, 48,153. The other chief towns and places of interest include—AROR, the capital of Sind under its Hindu Rájás; BRAHMANABAD, a mass of extensive ruins of very great antiquity, near Sháhdádpur; the fortified island of BUKKUR, in the Indus; KETI, the port on the principal mouth of the Indus (2141 persons); KHAIRPUR, the capital of the State of the same name; KOTRI, the station on the Indus Valley Railway opposite Haidarábád (8922); LARKHANA, a considerable manufacturing town (13,188); ROHRI (10,224); SEHWAN (4524), the deserted port of SHAHBANDAR; SUKKUR, the great inland port of the Indus, and point of departure for the new line of rail to the Bolán Pass (27,389); TATTA, the old emporium on the seaboard

(8830); JACOBABAD, the chief military station of the Frontier District (11,352); KAMBAR (6133); GARHI YASIN (5541); and MATARI (5054).

Agriculture.—The total extent of cultivated land in Sind in 1881–82 amounted to no more than 2,121,072 acres, by far the greater portion of the Province being absolutely barren. There are two principal harvests—the *rabí*, sown in August, September, or October, and reaped in February, March, or April; and the *kharíf*, sown during the floods of the Indus, in May, June, July, or August, and reaped in October, November, or December. The *rabí* consists of wheat, barley, gram, vetches, oil-seeds, indigo, hemp, and vegetables. The *kharíf* includes the millets known as *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum) and *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), the two chief food-grains in Sind, rice, oil-seeds, pulses, and cotton. The area under each staple in 1881–82 was as follows:—*Joár*, 493,694 acres; *bájra*, 474,786 acres; rice, 518,210 acres; oil-seeds, 122,464 acres; wheat, 225,946 acres; cotton, 70,178 acres; barley, 10,630 acres; indigo, 5325 acres; tobacco, 9586 acres; and sugar-cane, 2689 acres; pulses, 90,066 acres; gram, 22,039 acres; miscellaneous products, such as vegetables, fruits, etc., 75,459 acres. The distribution into harvests was as follows:—*Kharíf*, 1,652,261 acres; *rabí*, 381,080 acres; intermediate or mixed, 87,731 acres.

The fruits common to the country include dates, plantains, mangoes, limes, oranges, pomegranates, citrons, figs, grapes, tamarinds, mulberries, and melons. The apples of Sind are famous for their fine quality. The British have introduced apricots, peaches, and nectarines, with excellent results. The methods of cultivation still differ little, if at all, from the primitive type. Rotation of crops is unknown, and the implements belong to the coarsest patterns. Two bullocks generally draw the clumsy native plough; while a heavy log of wood, with a man perched on either end, and drawn by four bullocks, does duty for a harrow.

The dry character of the soil, and the almost complete absence of rain, render irrigation a matter of prime importance to the cultivator. Though situated on the very verge of either monsoon, the Province derives no benefit from their rainfall; for the north-western monsoon, which deluges the hills of Balúchistán, extends no farther eastward than Karáchí; while the south-western monsoon terminates at Lakhpat Bandar on the boundary of Cutch (Kachchh), as regularly as though it intentionally avoided the frontiers of Sind. Sometimes, indeed, for two or three years in succession, no rain falls in the Province. Under these circumstances, the Indus almost becomes to Sind what the Nile is to Egypt. Numerous irrigation canals, drawn from the main river or its tributaries, intersect the country in every direction. These canals are carried away from the raised bed of the stream in an oblique direction, so as to secure the greatest possible fall per mile. None of them have their heads where the bank is permanent, and none are deep enough to

draw off water except during inundation. The river must consequently rise several feet before the canals will fill. Many of the channels are old natural beds of the side branches, now deserted; and all have the appearance rather of rivers than of artificial cuts.

The canal system is very imperfect, owing to the want of permanent head-works, and the constant accumulation of silt. Cultivation is accordingly exposed to many risks, except in those lands where irrigation is always carried on by means of water-wheels; but as this method is expensive, the poorer cultivators prefer the inferior and precarious tillage of lands which can be directly flooded from the canals, where a small deficiency of water often entirely cuts off the whole crop. From the capricious nature of the water-supply, cultivation accordingly becomes a species of lottery, the cultivator being rich one season and a bankrupt the next. Too little or too much water, an early or a late supply, may destroy his only chance of a harvest. Owing to the frequent failures, agriculture is, on the whole, a poorly paid occupation; yet the peasantry prefer the gambling risk to steady and well-paid labour.

This precarious and uncertain cultivation renders the Sind peasantry an improvident and thriftless body. They are almost always in debt to the Hindu money-lenders, who often exact as much as cent. per cent. on their advances. The population is almost wholly engaged in agriculture, yet the Province does not usually produce much more than a sufficient quantity of food-grains for its own consumption, and considerable imports take place in years of scarcity.

The land tenures of Sind belong to extremely simple types. The landowners may be divided into three classes — large proprietors, a numerically small but very influential body; the holders of small estates, of a few hundred acres, answering to the middle-class gentry; and the peasant proprietors, a large body, paying revenue directly to Government, or to the alienee holding Government rights. The British authorities have upheld and fostered the rights of the smaller occupants against the encroachments of the *zamíndárs*, thus encouraging the spirit of independence amongst the cultivating classes.

The total agricultural population of the Province of Sind in 1881 was returned at 496,134, giving an average of 18·2 acres of cultivable and cultivated land to each. The total agricultural population, however, dependent on the soil amounted to 1,340,239, or 55·52 per cent. of the population of the Province. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £680,022, or an average of 2s. 0½d. per cultivated acre.

Commerce and Communications.—The trade of Sind centres almost entirely upon the great seaport of Karáchí, a creation of British rule, and now the chief port of entry and exit for the Punjab. The total value of the imports into Karáchí in 1881–82 amounted to £3,759,708;

while those into the whole Province, excluding the capital, were only £32,505. In the same year, the exports from Karáchí amounted to £3,959,333, and from the remainder of Sind to £85,314. The staple articles of export are raw cotton, wool, and grain of various kinds.

Karáchí has long formed the chief outlet for the cotton crops of Sind and the Punjab. The Province at one time actually imported the material necessary for its own petty domestic manufactures from Cutch (Kachchh) and Gujarát, to the amount of several thousand *maunds* annually. About 1840, however, extensive cotton plantations sprang up in Sind itself. In 1861, exports first began; and in 1866 they had reached the total of 28,128,900 lbs. A large portion of this amount, however, came from the Punjab. The home yield at present averages from 18,000 to 20,000 bales annually; though it is calculated that the Province still contains 3,000,000 acres of uncultivated land capable of growing the plant. The remainder consists of Punjab cotton, from the Districts of Múltán, Lahore, and Amritsar; but it bears in European markets the name of 'Sind,' from its place of shipment. Since 1870, a large trade in raw cotton has sprung up with China. The total export of raw cotton in 1882 amounted to 27,802,384 lbs.

The wool of Sind forms a staple of almost equal importance; though the larger portion of the quantity exported comes, not from the Province itself, but from Firozpur District in the Punjab, and from Afghánistán and Balúchistán. The supply from the latter countries is brought into the market in a dirty condition. The value of wool exported from Karáchí in 1873-74 was £634,874; and in 1881-82, £739,673.

Quite recently a very important and increasing trade in wheat with Europe has sprung up. The supply comes almost entirely from the Punjab. The following table shows the exports of wheat from Karáchí for the twelve years ending 1883-84:—

Year.	Quantity.	Value.	Year.	Quantity.	Value.
	Cwts.	£		Cwts.	£
1872-73, . . .	168,966	75,394	1878-79, . . .	22,333	12,858
1873-74, . . .	797,639	387,314	1879-80, . . .	274,764	153,462
1874-75, . . .	141,872	61,578	1880-81, . . .	169,465	86,757
1875-76, . . .	306,063	129,469	1881-82, . . .	1,852,334	948,243
1876-77, . . .	455,240	195,416	1882-83, . . .	2,732,275	1,281,238
1877-78, . . .	607,470	332,109	1883-84, . . .	4,372,832	1,952,647

NOTE.—In 1880, through railway communication was completed between Karáchí and the Punjab.

Extensive beds of bay salt occur on the Sirganda Creek, an eastern arm of the Indus, said to be capable of supplying the consumption of the whole world for a century. The deposit is remarkably pure, and consists of large crystals. Excise restrictions long prevented it from competing with other Indian salts, but these have now been removed.

The great harbour works of KARACHI are more fully described under that article. Communications are carried on by means of the Indus, by numerous excellent roads, by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and by the Sind-Pishin Railway. The river, the great source of wealth to the Province, is under the charge of a special Government department, the Indus Conservancy, which removes all obstructions to navigation as soon as they appear. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway runs from Karáchí to Delhi, a distance of 1169 miles, its main object being to facilitate the transmission of goods from Karáchí to Northern Sind and the Punjab, or *vice versa;* thus saving the long detour by sea and river between Karáchí and Kotri, *viâ* the Indus Delta. The Indus at Sukkur has not yet been bridged, although a railway bridge is now (1886) in course of construction. The stone work of the bridge has been finished, and its final completion only awaits the arrival of the iron work for the large span from Bukkur island to Rohri. At present, from Rohri, on the opposite bank to Sukkur, the railway proceeds into Baháwalpur State, and so joins the Punjab system at Múltán. From the Ruk Station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, the Sind-Pishin Railway is under construction to Quetta; about 152 miles have been finished and opened, but only 40 miles of this are in the Province of Sind. The submarine cable, laid in 1864, connects Karáchí with Fao in Turkish Arabia, and thence by Turkish Government telegraph with Constantinople and Western Europe. Another line runs from Karáchí along the Makrán coast, and thence by submarine cable to Bushire in Persia, connecting ultimately with the Russian system, as well as with the Siemens line to Berlin and England.

Administration.—Sind forms a Province under a Commissioner, subordinate to the Government of Bombay. It contains three Collectorates —those of KARACHI, SHIKARPUR, and HAIDARABAD; together with the two Districts of THAR AND PARKAR and the UPPER SIND FRONTIER, each under a Deputy Commissioner, besides the Native State of KHAIRPUR. The total imperial revenue of the Province in 1881-82 amounted to £809,311, of which £482,497 was derived from land revenue, and £8253 from a canal maintenance rate levied upon *jágírdárs* and from miscellaneous items of irrigation revenue. The other sources of revenue were—forests, £40,131; excise, £91,936; judicial, £9167; registration, £2965; stamps, £38,416; postal, £49,968; telegraph, £12,392; licence-tax, £14,846; customs, £53,949; miscellaneous,

£2555; and *ghí*-tax levied only in Thar and Párkar District, £2236 The local revenue in the same year amounted to £131,521, arising mainly from public works and municipal funds. The land-tax ordinarily forms two-thirds of the net revenue of Sind; but remissions are constantly necessitated by droughts, floods, or bursting of embankments. In spite of these drawbacks, however, the revenue has steadily increased under British rule. The cost of clearing canals forms one of the most important items of public expenditure.

The total police force of the Province consisted in the year 1881 of 4180 officers and men; but the area includes so large an extent of desert, that any general statement of numbers per square mile would only mislead. In Haidarábád District, where population is thickest, there is 1 policeman to every 12 square miles and to every 1019 inhabitants; in Karáchí District, including the capital, there is 1 policeman to every 9 square miles and to every 326 of the population; while in the desert District of Thar and Párkar there is only 1 policeman to every 22 square miles and to every 357 inhabitants. Number of civil judges, 33; and of stipendiary magistrates, 104.

Education has made rapid and satisfactory progress in Sind since the British annexation. In 1859–60, the Province contained only 20 Government schools. The total number of Government schools in 1873–74 amounted to 213, of which 26 were for girls. The number of pupils was 12,728, of whom 8531 were Hindus and only 4139 Muhammadans. In 1883–84, the schools under the Education Department had increased to 340, with 23,273 pupils. The number of indigenous schools at either date cannot be accurately ascertained. The Musalmán population show but little interest in education, and specially neglect that of their daughters. Haidarábád and Sukkur each possess a normal school, and the former town has also an engineering school. Among private institutions, the European and Indo-European schools at Karáchí, and the missionary schools in that town and Haidarábád, teach up to the matriculation standard of the Bombay University. The Census of 1881 returned 27,413 males and 2201 females as under instruction, besides 76,983 males and 2849 females able to read and write but not under instruction. There are four printing presses at Karáchí, and two at Shikárpur.

Medical Aspects.—Owing to its prevalent aridity, and the absence of the monsoons, Sind ranks amongst the hottest and most variable climates in India. The average temperature of the summer months is 95° F., and that of the winter months 60°. But the thermometer frequently rises in summer to 110° and occasionally to 120°; while in winter it falls at night a few degrees below freezing-point, and ranges even in the day-time from 40° to 80°. No other part of India has so long a continuance of excessively hot weather, owing to

the deficiency of rain. The climate on the sea-coast, however, is much more equable in temperature than in Upper Sind; and Karáchí, the great centre of European population, enjoys a strong sea-breeze, which blows day and night from April to October. In Northern Sind, the extremes of temperature are strongly marked. The thermometer at Shikárpur often sinks below freezing-point in winter, and ice forms as late as February; yet in summer, for weeks together, the readings at midnight do not fall below 100° F. This great and prolonged heat, coupled with the exhalations arising from the stagnant pools left after the annual inundation, produces a fatal fever and ague. The natives suffer severely from its effects, and British troops have often experienced a terrible mortality. The other prevailing diseases include small-pox and cholera. The latter complaint has often appeared in epidemic form, and wrought great mischief in the country districts; but at Karáchí, its ravages have lately been averted by the excellent sanitary precautions taken by the British authorities. Five civil surgeons are stationed respectively at Karáchí, Haidarábád, Sukkur, Shikárpur, and Jacobábád, and an apothecary at Kotri. Numerous charitable dispensaries have been established in all the chief towns; total number of patients treated in 1883–84 in the several hospitals and dispensaries, 195,422, of whom 5372 were in-door patients. Vaccination has made satisfactory progress, no opposition being raised except amongst the Hindu population. In 1873–74, the Government vaccinators operated upon 105,587 persons.

Sindewáhí (*Sindwai*).—Town in Brahmapuri *tahsíl*, Chándá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 17′ N., and long. 79° 42′ E., 16 miles north of Múl. Population (1881) 4569, mostly Telingas. Hindus number 3941; Muhammadans, 56; Jains, 15; and non-Hindu aborigines, 557. A fine tank 3 miles north-east of the town irrigates a wide extent of rice and sugar-cane fields. Sindewáhí manufactures cotton cloth and bangles, which are exported; and possesses some trade in raw cotton, grain, and sugar. Government school; police outpost.

Sindgi. — North-eastern Sub-division of Bijápur District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 812 square miles. Population (1881) 72,650, namely, males 36,466, and females 36,184, occupying 14,745 houses in 141 villages. Hindus, 63,027; Muhammadans, 9289; and 'others,' 334. Except some villages on the Bhíma river, the east of Sindgi is a rough rocky plain, with frequent, and, in some cases, abrupt undulations. It is scantily cultivated, treeless, and monotonous. The portion of the Sub-division on the banks of the Bhíma to the north and east is a black-soil plain, separated by long, low, step-like risings of trap. The soil is mostly formed from the wearing of the trap and laterite, with patches of grey and dark red and sometimes sand. The plain is well tilled, and, along the river banks, dotted with rich villages. In the south, the part watered by the Don river is the best cultivated portion of the Sub-

division. The supply of water is scanty. Of the total area of 812 square miles, 48 square miles are occupied by alienated villages. The remainder contains 389,687 acres of Government and 78,787 acres of alienated cultivable land; 16,415 acres of uncultivable land; 44 acres of forests; and 3356 acres of village sites, roads, and rivers. In 1881–82, 275,625 acres were under actual cultivation; cereals and millets occupied 206,378 acres; pulses, 8503 acres; oil-seeds, 18,779 acres; fibres (cotton), 40,208 acres; and miscellaneous crops, 1757 acres. In 1883 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 46 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 502. Land revenue (1882), £18,823.

Sindgi. — Chief village of Sindgi Sub-division, Bijápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated 35 miles north-east of Bijápur town. Population (1881) 3154. In December 1824, a band of insurgents led by a Bráhman, Devákar Dikshit, marched on Sindgi, captured the fort, and plundered the town. In 1866 the fort was dismantled. Dispensary.

Sindhiapura.—Petty State of Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 4 square miles. The chief is named Chauhán Jitabáwa. Estimated revenue, £200; of which £5, 14s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Owing to the insanity of the chief, the estate has been under direct British management since 1870.

Sindhorá.—Village in Benares *tahsíl*, Benares District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 32′ 13″ N., long. 82° 58′ 28″ E., 16 miles north-north-west from Benares city. Population (1881) 1985, principally Bráhmans, Kandu Baniyás, and Chamárs. Large mart for grain and cloth; small manufacture of sugar.

Sindí.—Town in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 78° 56′ E., 20 miles east of Wardhá town; and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Population (1881) 4644, chiefly weavers and cultivators. Hindus number 3970; Muhammadans, 502; Jains, 148; and non-Hindu aborigines, 24. Manufactures—coarse cotton cloth, oil, bangles, and shoes. A market is held every Thursday and Friday. Sindí has a school, a dispensary, and a storage yard for cotton near the railway station.

Sindkher (*Sindkhed*).—Chief town of Sindkher *parganá*, Buldáná District, Berar. Lat. 19° 57′ N., long. 76° 10′ E. Population (1881) 2695. According to one tradition, the town was founded and named about 1000 years ago by a king Sinduráur; according to another, it takes its name from Sidha Khetak, 'village of saints,' an unbroken line of whom are said to have lived here since the foundation of the place. The *parganá* of Sindkher was granted in *jágír* to the Kází of the town about 1450 A.D.; who afterwards gave it over voluntarily to the Jáduns,

the head and founder of whom was Lakhjí, a Rájput from Kurwáli in North Hindustán. Since then, Sindkher has been regarded as the chief seat of this family, who subsequently rose to much fame and power. The *jágír* of the *parganá* was held by the Jáduns for about 100 years, but was then restored to the Kází of the day by Murshid Alí Khán, a nobleman who came to Sindkher on a commission from the Delhi Government. The half-finished fort still stands north-west of Sindkher; it is about 150 yards square. The temple of Nilkantheswar to the south-west is supposed to be the oldest structure built by Hemár Panth; it bears an inscription, which is, however, nearly effaced, being several feet under water in the tank near the temple. Several palaces, such as the Mahálbágh, Mahákál, the Desmukh's residence, and three or four large wells built by the Jáduns, attest the magnificence and prosperity of the town in their time. In one of the frequent transfers from the Nizám to the Maráthás, Sindkher fell to Sindhia, who held it for nearly sixty years. It was restored to the Nizám in 1803. Báji Ráo Peshwá encamped at Sindkher for some days in 1818, when the British troops were on his track. In 1804, General Wellesley (Wellington) wrote: 'Sindkher is a nest of thieves; the situation of this country is shocking; the people are starving in hundreds, and there is no Government to afford the slightest relief.' The decline of the town was hastened by marauders, whose names—Mohan Singh, Budlam Sháh, and Ghází Khán—are yet remembered with terror. Of the once extensive irrigated gardens of Sindkher, only a few fruit-trees survive.

Sindkhera. — Town in Virdel Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 21° 17′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 50′ E., 24 miles north of Dhulia. Population (1881) 4295. Head-quarters of Virdel Sub-division. Municipal income in 1883–84, £141; incidence of taxation per head of population, 5¾d. Post-office.

Sindurjana.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar.—*See* SENDURJANA.

Sindwa.—Village and fort in Central India; situated in lat. 21° 40′ N., and long. 75° 20′ E. (Thornton), on the route from Mhow to Bombay, 90 miles south-west of the former town and 274 north-east of the latter. It lies 9 miles north of the Sindwa Ghát, a somewhat steep but much frequented mountain pass, leading from the highlands of the Sátpura range to the valley of the Tápti in Khándesh. On the south side, Sindwa is a strong square fort with a front of about 265 yards, most of it built of fine cut stone and mortar. It had nine round towers, one at each angle, as well as one in the centre of each curtain. Four gateways were protected by strong mud outworks. A dry ditch of no great size runs along the north-east and south faces. The town inside the walls has a mud fort in its centre. The grand entrance on the south consists of a very strong gateway flanked by two large round

towers, with a commanding terrace and curtain running between. Wide ramparts surround the fort, with several guns of different sizes. One or two large reservoirs, well provided with water. Ceded to the British Government by Holkar under the treaty of Mandeswar (1818); but restored to him upon the condition of his building a bridge over the Gohi river.

Singa.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab; leading across the Himálayan range, which bounds Kunáwár to the south. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 78° 29′ E. Stated by Thornton to be open from May till the middle of August, but impracticable at other times from the depth of the snow. Elevation above sea-level, between 16,000 and 17,000 feet.

Singálilá.—Hill range in Dárjíling District, Bengal. An immense spur, 60 miles long, stretching south from Kánchanjangá to the plains of India, and separating Sikkim from East Nepál. Lat. 27° 1′ to 27° 14′ N., and long. 88° to 88° 2′ E. The waters from its west flank flow into the Támbar, and those from the east into the Great Ranjít, a feeder of the Tísta. The highest peaks of the Singálilá range are—PHALALUM, 12,042; SUBARGUM, 10,430; and TANGLU, 10,084 feet.

Singampunári.—Village in Tirupatúr *táluk*, Sivagangá *zamíndári*, Madura District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 5769, namely, Hindus, 5638; Muhammadans, 114; and Christians, 17.

Singánallúr.— Village in Coimbatore *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency, and a station on the south-western line of the Madras Railway; situated in lat. 12° 9′ N., and long. 77° 16′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 7793, occupying 1632 houses. Hindus number 7743; Muhammadans, 15; and Christians, 35. The town and fort were destroyed by the Maráthás. The town has recovered under British rule, and is now a busy place.

Singanmat.—Principal peak in the Sankara range, Santál Parganás District, Bengal. Well known as a landmark to all the country round. As recently as 1867 a human sacrifice was made on the summit of this hill as a propitiatory offering by the Mál Paháriás of Sankara village.

Singapur (*Singapuram*).—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 19° 3′ 19″ N., and long. 82° 43′ 16″ E., 21 miles west of Bissem Katak on the Banjara route to Nágpur. Population (1881) 999, chiefly Uriyás, dwelling in 229 houses.

Singárapet (*Singaricotta, Tingrecotta*).—Pass connecting the Districts of Salem and South Arcot, Madras Presidency.—*See* CHENGAMA.

Singaurgarh.—Hill fort in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 32′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 47′ E., 26 miles north-west of Jabalpur city, on a high hill commanding the narrow Sangrámpur valley. Founded by Rájá Bel, a Chandela Rájput, it was enlarged by Rájá Dalpat Sá, of Garha-Mandlá, who made it the seat of Government

barriers to navigation exist in many parts of their courses. The banks are steep and covered with jungle, and no system of river-bank cultivation is known in the District.

There are no canals or lakes in Singhbhúm; and the only form of artificial irrigation is the construction of embanked reservoirs across the upper ends of the natural depressions in which rice is grown. Water is thus stored, and is let out upon the crop by channels cut through or round the embankment.

Minerals.—Iron in a nodular form is obtained in most of the hill ranges. The nodules are small, of a dull red colour, and show a glossy surface if subjected to friction. Ore also occurs in the form of a black earth, which is rich in metal, and is usually found in stratified masses, which have to be dug out and broken in pieces before smelting. The furnaces used are built of mud in a cylindrical form, and are about three feet high. They are charged from the top with alternate layers of ore and charcoal; and, after smelting, the iron is raked out from the bottom of the furnace. The blast is obtained from two cup-shaped bellows, which are worked alternately with the feet. Gold is found in minute quantities in the sands of the rivers in the form of spangles. Copper was formerly obtained from the foot of a range of hills in Dhálbhúm; old workings, ascribed to the Jains, are found, extending over many miles, and the operations appear to have been thoroughly exhaustive. Subsequent attempts made to work the mines by European methods have proved unremunerative. Nodular limestone (*kankar* or *ghútin*) occurs all over the District, but not in sufficient quantities to be useful for road-making. Slate and coloured earths are found to the south-west of Cháibásá. Soapstone occurs in several places, and is manufactured into cups and platters.

Forests, Jungle Products, etc.—About two-thirds of Singhbhúm District are covered with primeval forest, the principal trees being *sál* (Shorea robusta), *ásan* (Terminalia tomentosa), *gamhár* (Gmelina arborea), *kusam* (Schleichera trijuga), *tún* (Cedrela Toona), *piásál* (Pterocarpus Marsupium), *sisu* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *kend* (Diospyros melanoxylon), and *jámun* (Eugenia jambolana). Of these, the *sál* is the most valuable, for the hardness of its timber and the size of the beams which the larger specimens yield. The *piásál* is a hand some wood, but, unless well varnished, gives out a yellow stain when wetted. No teak is met with, and no rattans. Jungle products of various kinds abound; but, owing to the isolated position of the District, they command only a nominal value, and yield no revenue. The chief articles of jungle produce are lac, beeswax, *chob*, or the bark of certain creepers twisted into rope; *bábui* grass, which is also made into rope; and a variety of leaves and roots, which are used for food.

The forests give shelter to tigers, leopards, bears, bison, and several

kinds of deer; and small herds of elephants occasionally wander across the boundary from the Meghásani Hills in Morbhanj. Wild ducks, pigeons, geese, snipe, partridge, and quail are found in the low-lying lands. The pangolin or scaly ant-eater is one of the curiosities of the District. Snakes of all kinds abound.

History.—The following section of this article is condensed from Colonel Dalton's valuable *Ethnology of Bengal*, the portions used being quoted in full in Hunter's *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 107–114. The Singhbhúm Rájput chiefs have been known to the officers of the British Government since 1803, in which year the Marquis of Wellesley, Governor-General, caused friendly communications to be addressed to the ancestor of the present Rájá of Sáraikalá (whose territory adjoined the Jungle Maháls, then under the East India Company), regarding the assistance which he promised to render in the prosecution of the war against Rághují Bhonsla of Nágpur. There does not appear to have been any intercouse between British officials and the people of the Kolhán previous to the year 1819. Of the interior of their country, for years after the acquisition of the surrounding Districts, nothing whatever was known. The Hos or Larka Kols would allow no strangers to settle in, or even pass through, the Kolhán; and pilgrims to Jagannáth had to make a circuit of several days' journey to avoid it. In 1819, the Assistant Political Agent was directed to proceed to Paráhát, to negotiate a settlement with its chief; but he did not succeed in penetrating so far into their country, owing to the fears entertained by the people of the savage character of the aboriginal Kols. The Political Officer writes—'The Rájá and the *zamíndárs* of Singhbhúm, who are in attendance on me, have so formidable an opinion of the power and ferocity of these savages, that, notwithstanding the considerable force under my command, they are evidently much alarmed, and have made a formal protest against the dangers of the march.'

In 1820, the Rájá of Paráhát acknowledged himself a feudatory of the British Government, and agreed to pay a small tribute. At this time, the Rájá and *zamíndárs* of Singhbhúm were pressing on the Political Agent, Major Roughsedge, their claims to supremacy in the Kolhán, asserting that the Kols were their subjects in rebellion, and urging on Government to force them to return to their allegiance. The Kols denied that they were subject to the chiefs. Until they quarrelled they regarded them, they said, as friends and allies, not as rulers; and if they had at any time been their subjects, they had achieved their liberty in various hard-fought fields, and were entitled to their independence. The chiefs admitted that for more than fifty years they had been unable to exercise any control over them; and Major Roughsedge refers to three formidable but abortive attempts made (the

last in 1800) to subjugate them. After these attacks on their independence, it appears that the Larkas retaliated on all the bordering States, committing great ravages and depopulating entire villages.

In 1820, Major Roughsedge entered their country with a force of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, with the avowed object of compelling the Kols to submit to the Rájás who claimed their allegiance. He did his best to conciliate them, and was at first in hopes that he had succeeded. He was allowed to advance unmolested into the heart of their territory; but while encamped at Cháibásá on the Roro river, near the present station of the same name, an attack was made within sight of the camp by a body of Larkas, who killed one man and wounded several others with their battle-axes. They then moved away towards the hills; but their retreat was cut off by Lieutenant Maitland, who in several encounters dispersed them with great loss. The whole of the northern *pírs* or communities entered into engagements to pay tribute to the Rájá of Singhbhúm. But in leaving the country, Major Roughsedge had to encounter the still fiercer Kols of the southern *pírs;* and after fighting every inch of his way out of Singhbhúm, he left them unsubdued. Immediately afterwards, a war broke out between the Larkas who had submitted, and those who had not; and a body of 100 Hindustání Irregulars, sent to the assistance of the former, were driven out by the latter.

In 1821, a large force was employed to reduce the Larkas; and after a month's hostilities, the leaders, encouraged by a proclamation, surrendered, and entered into agreements to pay tribute to the Singhbhúm chiefs, to keep the roads open and safe, to give up offenders, and also agreed that 'if they were oppressed by any of the chiefs, they would not resort to arms, but would complain to the officer commanding the troops on the frontier, or to some other competent authority.' After a year or two of peace, however, they again became restive, and gradually extended the circle of their depredations. The assistance rendered by them to the Nágpur Kols in the rebellion of 1831–32 was too gross a defiance of the Government to escape serious notice. Sir Thomas Wilkinson, who was then Agent to the Governor-General for the newly formed Non-Regulation Province of the South-Western Frontier, at once recognised the necessity of a thorough subjugation of the Kols, and equally the impolicy and futility of forcing them to submit to the chiefs. He proposed an occupation of Singhbhúm by an adequate force, and suggested that, when the people were thoroughly subdued, they should be placed under the direct management of a British officer, to be stationed at Cháibásá in the heart of their country. These views were accepted; a force under Colonel Richards entered Singhbhúm in November 1836, and by the end of the February following, all the refractory head-men had submitted and entered into engagements to

bear true allegiance to the British Government. From this time until 1857 there was no disturbance, and the District seemed to have settled down into quietness and prosperity. In that year, the Paráhát Rájá, after wavering for a little between loyalty and rebellion, chose the latter, and a considerable section of the Kols supported him. A tedious and difficult campaign ensued, the rebels taking refuge in the mountain fastnesses whenever they were driven from the plains. Eventually, however, they surrendered (in 1859), and the capture of the Rájá put an end to the disturbances.

Since that year the Kols have given no trouble. Under the judicious management of a succession of officers, whose names will always be household words in the Kolhán, these savages have been gradually tamed, softened, and civilised, rather than subjugated. Up to a few years ago, they steadily opposed the opening of roads through their territory, removing from the villages to the hills (their usual custom when dissatisfied and excited) till the obnoxious posts set up to mark the alignment were taken down, and the project abandoned. Now their country is in all directions traversed by good roads, made by themselves under the superintendence of their officers. New sources of industrial wealth have been opened out, new crops requiring more careful cultivation introduced, new wants created and supplied; even a desire for education has been engendered and fostered, and already well-educated Kols are to be found among the clerks of the Cháibásá courts. The ameliorating influences of Christianity have also made themselves felt, in a striking manner, among the Kols. The work has gone on with increasing vigour of late years, and the number of converts is now much larger than the returns of 1881 (quoted below) indicate.

Population.—The first attempt at an enumeration of the people of Singhbhúm was made in 1867, when a Census was undertaken of the Government estate of the Kolhán. From the results of this, an estimate was made for the total population of the District, as then constituted, which amounted, according to the calculations, to 355,906 souls. The regular Census of 1872, on an area corresponding to the present District, returned the population at 318,180. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a population of 453,775, showing an apparent increase of 135,595, or 42·61 per cent., in nine years—an increase, however, mainly due to defective enumeration in 1872.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3753 square miles, with 1 town and 3000 villages; number of houses, 86,306, namely, occupied 85,843, and unoccupied 463. Total population, 453,775, namely, males 226,681, and females 227,094. Average density of the population, 121 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·80; persons per village, 151; houses

per square mile, 23; inmates per house, 5·29. Classified according to sex and age, the population consisted of—under 15 years of age, boys 100,404, and girls 95,695; total children, 196,099, or 43·2 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 126,277, and females 131,399; total adults, 257,676, or 56·8 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 447,810, or 98·68 per cent. of the total; Muhammadans, 2329; Christians, 2988; and 'others,' 648, consisting entirely of non-Hindu Santáls.

Among aboriginal tribes, the most numerous are the Kols, of whom there were 187,723 in 1881, all returned as Hindus by religion. The name Kol, as popularly used, includes not only Hos and Mundas, but also the Dravidian Uráons, while its scientific use embraces the cognate Kolarian tribes of Mundas, Hos or Larka Kols, Bhúmijs, and Kharwárs. The two last tribes are returned separately in the Census Report of 1881, the former numbering 40,070, and the latter 3822, thus making a total Kol population of 231,615, or 51 per cent. of that of the whole District. The bulk of the Kols enumerated above are Hos, otherwise called Larka or 'fighting' Kols, the characteristic aboriginal race of Singhbhúm.

A detailed account of this tribe, taken from Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal*, will be found in *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 39–59, and in a more abbreviated form under the article KOL, *ante*, vol. viii. pp. 253–260. The Kols appear to have no traditions of origin or migration that throw much light on their history. As has been said in the preceding section, they isolated themselves jealously for many years, and even at the present day the exclusiveness of the old Hos is remarkable. They will not allow aliens to hold lands near their villages; and, indeed, if it were left to them, no strangers would be permitted to settle in the Kolhán. Physically, the Singhbhúm Hos are the finest of all the Kolarian tribes. The men average 5 feet 5 or 6 inches in height; the women 5 feet 2 inches; and both men and women are noticeable for their fine erect carriage and long free stride. They do not encumber themselves with much clothing, and even wealthy men move about all but naked, as proudly as if they were clad in purple and fine linen. The Hos are fair marksmen with the bow and arrow, and great sportsmen. They are a purely agricultural people, and their festivals are all connected with that pursuit. They show great reverence for the dead, and their peculiar and touching funeral ceremonies are well described by Colonel Dalton. The same writer describes the Hos as possessing 'a manner free from servility, but never rude; a love, or at least the practice, of truth; a feeling of self-respect, rendering them keenly sensitive under rebuke;' and he adds that since they have come under our rule, 'they have become less sus-

picious, less revengeful, less bloodthirsty, less contumacious,' than they were. They are still, however, easily excited to rash action.

Of the other aboriginal tribes in Singhbhúm, Santáls number 52,602, of whom all but 648 are returned as Hindus. Bhuiyás number 8141; Gonds, 1628; and 'others,' 10,513. Total aborigines, 304,499, or 67·1 per cent. of the District population. It is singular that, although the Singhbhúm aborigines are the wildest and most backward of all the Districts of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, the whole of the aboriginal population, with the exception of 648 Santáls, should be returned as Hindus by religion.

Among recognised Hindus, the higher castes are numerically very weak. Bráhmans number only 2886; Rájputs, 1949; Káyasths, 993; Khandaits, 391; and Baniyás, 2259. Among the lower or *Súdra* castes are included the following:—Goálá, the most numerous caste in the District, 38,672; Tántí, 20,839; Kúrmí, 9122; Lohár, 7728; Kumbhár, 6882; Telí, 3394; Dhobí, 2626; Sunri, 2611; Málí, 2342; Nápit, 2321; Dom, 2171; Harí, 1355; Sadgop, 1239; and Bauri, 1055. Caste-rejecting Hindus number 3491, including 2868 Vaishnavs.

The Muhammadans only number 2329, or 0·5 per cent. of the District population. None of the reforming sects of Islám are represented in Singhbhúm; and the existing Musalmán community makes no converts, except among Hindus who have been expelled from their caste. Nearly the whole of the native Christians are converts from the aboriginal races. Three missions are at work in the District—the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the Lutheran Evangelical Mission, and a Roman Catholic Mission.

Urban and Rural Population.—The population is entirely rural, and the only place with upwards of five thousand inhabitants is CHAIBASA, which in 1881 contained a population of 6006. Of the 3000 villages, no less than 2276 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 611 had between two hundred and five hundred; 106 between five hundred and a thousand; and 7 between one thousand and two thousand inhabitants. In the wilder jungles to the south and east of the Kolhán proper, there still exist, in the shape of tanks and architectural remains, traces of a people more civilised than the Kols of the present day. The most interesting of these are—Benu Ságar, a fine tank surrounded by the ruins of what must have been a large town; Kiching with its temples still resorted to by pilgrims; and two very curious artificial pools of water, called the Surmí and Durmí. The sepulchral and monumental stones which are characteristic of the Mundás and Hos occur in large numbers throughout the District.

The Material Condition of the People.—The wonderful progress in the material condition of the people that has taken place of late years may

be vividly illustrated by two quotations from Government Reports. In reporting on Singhbhúm District in 1854, Sir Henry Ricketts referred in the following terms to Captain Haughton's proposal that the *pan* or customary price paid for a wife should be abolished, as being a serious check to the increase of population:—'For some reasons it certainly would be good were the custom abolished; but so long as the Kols continue to be what the Kols are now, any plan which has the effect of preventing an increase of their numbers is not without advantage. I cannot consider it desirable that there should be more Kols; though I would omit no endeavour to improve the condition, both moral and physical, of those who unfortunately hold some of the fairest *parganás* of Singhbhúm.' In 1873, Captain Garbett described the Kol villages as 'perfect pictures of comfort and prettiness,' adding that 'the brisk attendance and business done at markets, the increasing use of brass instead of earthen utensils, the more common wearing by the women of a better description of *sárí*, and a dozen other indications in themselves perhaps slight, but important in the aggregate, all attest the growing progressive prosperity of the people.' This improvement has been accompanied by a marked increase in the numbers of the people. In the hills and backwoods, types of the more primitive Ho may still be found; but in a few more years, if these wild foresters remain in their present condition, they will be altogether repudiated by their refined brethren round Cháibásá. The Hindu inhabitants of Singhbhúm, chiefly Mathurábásís, Goálás, and Kurmís, are good cultivators, and some have risen to be substantial farmers. They are particularly enterprising in reclaiming waste land and founding new villages. Certainty of tenure, freedom from agrarian disputes, and low rates of rent all over the District are the chief causes which have effected this change in the material condition of the people, aided by the extension of roads in all directions, the development of fresh sources of industrial wealth—such as the trade in *tasar* silk—the cultivation of new crops, and the gradual spread of education.

Agriculture.—The system of rice cultivation is similar to that described in the article on HAZARIBAGH, though it is not so fully developed here as in that District and LOHARDAGA. Land is classified on the same principle, and the crops are the same; but, except in villages occupied by the Hindu caste of Kurmís, the general style of cultivation is primitive, and the land undergoes scarcely any systematic preparation for the crop. Of late years, however, the Kols have made a considerable advance in the methods of tillage, and now get three crops in the year when formerly they had but one. The chief crops of the District, besides rice, are wheat, Indian corn, peas, gram, mustard, sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco. The area under different crops has been estimated as follows:—Rice, 503,233 acres; cotton, 23,637 acres; Indian corn,

Kolhán. In 1846, the land revenue was £1133; and the *zamíndár* of Dhalbhúm was the only registered proprietor, and Dhalbhúm and the Kolhán were the only two estates on the District rent-roll. In 1883–84, the land revenue was £6096, the number of estates being four, namely, the Kolhán, Dhalbhúm, Paráhát, and Baudgáon.

In 1883, the regular police force numbered 161 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £3277. There was also a rural police or village watch of 546 men, maintained by contributions from the villagers, and costing £956. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property in the District consisted of 607 officers and men, showing (according to the Census returns of area and population) 1 man to every 6·2 square miles of the area and to every 747 of the population. The estimated total cost was £4233, giving an average of £1, 2s. 6¾d. per square mile of area and 2¼d. per head of the population. Suicide is a characteristic crime of the District, chiefly among the Kols, who are an extremely sensitive race. The average daily number of prisoners in the Cháibásá jail in 1883 was 63.

The progress of education in Singhbhúm has, owing to its secluded position, been very slow, but of late years there has been a great improvement. The number of Government and aided schools in 1870–71 was 9, with 684 pupils. By 1882–83 the number of schools had increased to 170, and the pupils to about 8500. The Census Report of 1881 returned 4540 boys and 107 girls as under instruction, besides 4655 males and 132 females able to read and write but not under instruction.

There are no administrative Sub-divisions in Singhbhúm, nor are there any *parganás* properly so called. The real internal divisional units of the District are the estates already referred to. The *pír*, or group of villages, is the administrative unit of the old village organization of the Hos and Mundas; but the fiscal character which it bears in the Kolhán is solely of British institution, and does not form part of the indigenous system. It is both smaller and more symmetrical than the *parganá* of the Regulation Districts.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Singhbhúm is, as might be supposed [illegible] its inland position, dry. The civil station of Cháibásá is healthy, [illegible] jungle-clad hill tracts are so malarious that they cannot be [illegible] safety before the month of November. December and [illegible] the coldest months, and at this season the thermometer [illegible] low as 50° F. The weather in the hot season is [illegible] thermometer frequently marking 106° F. in the [illegible] annual rainfall is returned at 57 inches. The [illegible] are intermittent and remittent fevers of the [illegible] of small-pox and cholera have occasionally [illegible] outbreak of cholera was that which [illegible] of 1866. [illegible]

dispensary at Cháibásá. [For further information regarding see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, ... (London: Trübner & Co., 1877); also Mr. (th... Rickett's *Report on Singhbhúm District* (1854); the ... *Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration ... mental Reports of the Bengal Government.]

Singheswarthán.—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; in lat. 25° 58′ 48″ N., and long. 86° 50′ 31″ E., ... miles north of ...ura. Well known in Behar for being the scene of the largest fair north of the Ganges; this is held in January, and attended by traders from Purniah, Monghyr, Tirhut, and the neighbouring Nepál. Native shoes, English cloth, horses, long Ne... *kukris* form the other principal articles of commerce. T... to the Pándes.

Singhpur.—Town in Narsinghpur *tahsíl*, Narsinghpur ... Central Provinces. Population (1881) 3130, namely, Hindus ... Muhammadans, 343; Kabírpanthís, 40; and non-Hindu a... tribes, 135.

Singhpur (or *Sawaisthán Sinhpur*).—Petty State in the Mehwás of Khándesh District, Bombay. Population (1881) 646. A ... tract of plain country covered by thick forest, which, besides timber, yields *mahuá* flowers, wax, and honey. The soil is good, but, except near villages, is little cultivated. The chief is a Bhíl.

Singimári.—Village in the south-west of Goálpára District, Assam, near the left bank of the Brahmaputra; about 42 miles west of Turá station in the Gáro Hills, with which it is connected by road. An important weekly market is held in the village, which is largely resorted to by the Gáros.

Singimári.—Principal river of Kuch Behar State, Bengal. Entering the State under the name of the Jáldhaká, at its extreme north-west corner, near Moranga-hát in Khíti, it flows in a south-eastern direction by the villages of Giljdángá, Panigrám, Dhaibángá, Khaterbári, and Mátábhángá. In the middle of its course it is called the Mánshái, and lower down, the Singimári. It has several cross communications with the Dharlá or Torshá, and finally joins that river on the southern border of the State, near the trading villages of Durgápur and Chil... ...ahá. It has several large tributaries, among which may be mentioned the Mujnái, Satanga, Dudúya, ..., and ... ... Behar was ... Singimári, ... Gosáinmárá (at ...pur), where ... temples and fortresses still attest the bygone greatness of ... The river is navigable all the year round by boats of 100 maunds burden ...